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VIEW

OF THE

RUSSIAN EMPIRE

DURING THE REIGN OF

CATHARINE THE SECOND,

AND TO THE

CLOSE OF THE PRESENT CENTURY.

By WILLIAM TOOKE, F. R. S.
MEMBER OF THE IMPERIAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES AND OF THE FREE ECONOMICAL SOCIETY AT ST. PETERSBURG.

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VIEW

VIEW

OF THE

RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

BOOK II.

HISTORICAL VIEW OF THE NATIONS OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

SECTION III.

Mongoles.

FROM the cold northern regions of the Finns, we now proceed acroſs the ſouth-eaſtern aſiatic ſteppes to the confines of modern Siberia, there to trace out the primitive ſeat of a nation, once the terror and the ſcourge of more than one quarter of the world, which has ſpread itſelf over a great part of both the northern and ſouthern hemiſpheres, and whoſe furious thirſt of conqueſt, for ſeveral ages together, has plunged Ruſſia into diſſolution and ruin.

The Mongoles *, a nation remarkable as the diſturbers of the world, every where extended their ravages, as if the annihilation of the human race had been their ultimate object. Had not their violences brought about revolutions in the ſtate of governments and of mankind, and produced conſequences that are ſtill viſible, the hiſtorian would never have profaned his pen by recording the cataſtrophes of theſe barbarians, and their bloody trophies would long ago have been conſigned to oblivion.

The antient hiſtory of the Mongoles is partly quite unknown and partly fabulous. In the ninth century three nations appeared roaming about the northern ſide of China and Korea, in countries whereof the Greeks and Romans had never heard: in the weſt, or in modern Mongolia, the Mong-u, who in the ſequel were called Monk-kos and Mongoles; farther to the eaſt the Kitanes; and, laſtly, beyond Korea as far as the Eaſtern-ocean the Niudſches or Kin, who

* That, contrary to the uſual poſition of the nations of Ruſſia, the Mongolians are treated of before the Tartars, is, becauſe the events that befel the latter, inaſmuch as they concern the ruſſian empire, are comprehended in the mongolian hiſtory, by which method the ſucceeding account of the tartarian nations is rendered more eaſy and familiar.

are,

are, generally ſpeaking, the ſame people with the Tunguſes, and the Mandſchu the preſent ſovereigns of China. Theſe three nations, who, gathering by degrees, grew at length to be great ruling nations, were at that time weak and inconſiderable. In the tenth century the Kitanes firſt ſubdued the two other nations, and then the northern provinces of China. The Niudſches, however, ſoon roſe in rebellion againſt them, were called in to their aſſiſtance by the Chineſe, and now got the upper-hand of them as well as of the Kitanes. Upon this, a part of the latter retreated weſtwards, and took poſſeſſion of the leſſer Bukharia, where they have ſince bore the name of Karakitans or Karaktayans. In the mean time the Niudſches ruled over the north of China and the Mongoley as far as the Eaſtern-ocean. The Mongoles were divided into ſeveral hordes, who, notwithſtanding the ſupremacy of the Niudſches, had their own khans. It was one of theſe petty princes, Temudſchin, who, under the name of Tſchinghis-khan, became the founder of a new monarchy, and one of the moſt memorable ravagers of the world.

Temudſchin was thirteen years old when, on the death of his father in 1176, he became ſovereign of 40,000 families: but, amidſt the ſan-

guinary quarrels that broke out among the khans of the different hordes, he ſoon found means by his bravery and fortitude to render himſelf the moſt powerful prince of the whole Mongoley. In order completely to become the general khan, and to enable himſelf to put in execution the great plans of conqueſt that were hatching in his reſtleſs mind, he had recourſe to the patronage of ſuperſtition, as the moſt effectual means to deſpotiſm. At a grand council, which, in 1206, was held at the ſources of the Onon, a khodſha or ſage, who paſſed among the people for a prophet and favourite of the deity, publicly entered, announced to him the dominion of the world, and required him, on the part of God, to aſſume henceforward the appellative of Tſchinghis-khan.

Thus it was that Tſchinghis began his formidable courſe, which laſted twenty years; during which time he deſolated countries and ſubjugated the people from Mongolia and from China to the farther Aſia, and in Europe quite up to the ſhores of the Dniepr. If, however, we ſtop a moment to examine the condition of the european and the aſiatic ſtates at that period, we ſhall no longer be aſtoniſhed at the progreſs made by the arms of Tſchinghis, but ſhall rather ſee cauſe for ſurpriſe that they penetrated

no farther. We ſhall not here detain the reader with the detail of his victories and conqueſts, but ſhall only obſerve in general the rapid aggrandizement of the mongolian monarchy, and particularly as it ſtood in relation to the ruſſian ſtate.

In the firſt three years of his warfare Tſchinghis ſubdued the Naimanes, Kirghiſes, and the other tartarian hordes. He received the voluntary ſubmiſſion of the Igures, a poliſhed nation who communicated the art of writing to the Mongoles, from whom afterwards the Mandſchu received it. About the ſame time Tſchinghis preſſed forward into the north-weſtern parts of China, and made the king of Tangut his vaſſal. Soon after this he turned his arms againſt the Niudſches, proceeding in his conqueſts, murders, and plunderings, as far as the capital of Irnking, forced it to ſurrender, and found in it the wiſe Ilidſchutzay *, a truly great and noble-minded man, whom he made his firſt officer of ſtate; and who, not only reſcued ſeveral millions of perſons from their impending fate, who would otherwiſe have fallen victims to the

* This man, however harſh his name may ſound, highly merits to live in the hearts of all the friends of mankind; he was a deſcendant of the dethroned imperial houſe of the Kitanes.

ſavage Mongoles, but who alſo may juſtly be ſaid to have created the mongolian ſtate, by poliſhing the manners of that people, and, as far as he was able, diſſeminating the arts and the ſciences among them.

While the mongolian army was fighting againſt the Niudſches, in 1217, the flames of war broke out with increaſing fury on the weſtern ſide of the mongolian empire, which in the ſequel communicated to all the countries round, and the Mongoles advanced to nether Aſia, and thence again to Europe. — Keſchluk, king of the Naimanes, who had conquered Karakitai, rouſed the Kanglians *, the Kaptſchaks, the Kitanes, and ſeveral adjacent nations, to take up arms againſt the conqueror. Tſchinghis, upon this, committed the proſecution of the other wars to his ſon Tuſchi and other commanders, while himſelf marched againſt Keſchluk, whom he defeated, and the country ſubmitted after a ſhort reſiſtance. He now haſtened to meet the ſultan of Khovareſm †, who had cauſed his ambaſſador to be ſlain. This prince was undoubtedly his

* Theſe are the Petſchenegrans, as they are called by the ruſſian and poliſh chronologiſts. They denominate themſelves Kangar or Kangli.

† Khovareſm was a ſtate torn off from the great empire of Seldſchuk, which had been founded by turkiſh nations.

mightieſt

mightieſt and moſt dangerous adverſary; but he was likewiſe obliged to ſubmit to the mongolian conqueror. In the year 1220 the capital Khovareſm was captured, on which occaſion the number of the killed amounted to upwards of 100,000 perſons, and every mongolian warrior received four-and-twenty ſlaves to his ſhare.

About the ſame time all the countries and nations quite as far as the Oxus ſubmitted to his arms. Tſchinghis now diſpatched an army acroſs that river, who took Khoroſan, and drove the new khovareſmian ſultan to India. A ſecond was ſtill continually fighting in China againſt the Niudſches; a third was making conqueſts in Kaptſchak, on the north ſide of the Caſpian, and even a fourth, which had already reduced the countries on the ſouth ſide of that ſea, was now advancing againſt the Kaptſchaks. This is the army which proceeded quite up to the Dniepr. The Alanes, or Dagheſtanians, were already conquered, and the Mongoles were ſtill preſſing hard on thoſe Kaptſchaks, which in the ruſſian year-books are called Polovtzes, on their retreat to the ruſſian borders with the grand-duke of Kief, and now with united forces fell upon the common foe. Unhappily here alſo the fortune of war decided in favour of the mongolian ravagers. In 1223 the Polovtzes

and Ruſſians loſt the great battle on the Kalka *, and were purſued as far as the Dniepr by the Mongoles, who, however, this time did not penetrate into Ruſſia; but, laden with immenſe booty, returned by Kaptſchak to Bukharia, to the great Tſchinghis.

In this very year from which we date the commencement of the moſt unfortunate period for Ruſſia, Tſchinghis convoked a general diet, in which the form of government to be adopted for the conquered countries was ſettled †. This inſatiable conqueror, like Alexander, had formed the plan of penetrating into India; but here alſo the ſame thing happened to him as to his grecian predeceſſor: the army refuſed to proceed farther. — After an abſence of ſeven years, Tſchinghis, in 1225, returned to his Mongoley; but preſently after, that is, in the following year, he found himſelf obliged to undertake a campaign againſt the rebellious Tangut. The Mongoles penetrated acroſs the great ſandy deſert into that country, and were victo-

* This battle coſt ſix ruſſian princes their lives, and ſcarcely the tenth part of the army returned.

† What ſort of a ſpirit preſided in this aſſembly may be judged of by a ſingle circumſtance. Some of the grandees adviſed Tſchinghis to exterminate all the inhabitants of the conquered countries in China; and it was with difficulty that Ilidſchutzay put aſide the propoſal.

rious

rious every where; the royal race was exterminated, and the inhabitants were ſlaughtered in ſuch ſhocking multitudes, that ſcarcely one in fifty was ſpared. After this conqueſt, Tſchinghis had juſt conceived the idea of putting an end to the empire of the Niudſches in China, when death, in 1227, ſurpriſed this deſtroyer in the midſt of his dreadful projects.

Tſchinghis had bequeathed to his ſon Oktay the ſovereignty of his dominions; but this prince, as well as his three ſucceſſors, were properly no more than the grand khans of the prodigious mongolian empire, with whom their brothers and relations at the ſame time reigned in large tracts of country as princes, though dependent on the grand-khanate *.

Oktay firſt put an end to the empire of the Niudſches in China, and reduced the whole northern China to his authority. Shortly after

* Tſchinghis in his lifetime had made the following ſettlement among his four ſons: 1. Oktay to be grand-khan, and to have the Mongoley, Tangut, and the countries already taken from the Niudſches. 2. Taulai obtained Khoraſan, the reſt of Perſia, and the indian conqueſts. 3. Dſchagatai had the greater and the leſs Bukharia, Turfan, the country of the Igures, and a part of the preſent Kalmuckey. 4. Baaty, a nephew of Tſchinghis, whoſe father was already dead, received Kaptſchak, or the countries on the north ſide of the Caſpian, with all the conqueſts thenceforth to be made on the european ſide.

this

this he made war upon the kings of Korea *, who had riſen up againſt his ſupremacy, and now took the reſolution, with an army of more than a million and a half of men, to overrun the world from one end of our hemiſphere to the other. Putting himſelf at the head of 600,000 of his troops, he marched againſt the dynaſty of Song in ſouthern China; while, at the ſame time, the main body of his army, under the command of his ſon Kayuk and his nephews Baaty and Manku, proceeded to the weſt. On their progreſs they ſubdued the Tſcherkaſſes and Avkhaſes, penetrated the Baſchkirey, into Kazan and Bulgaria, and finally came to Moſco. Fourteen ruſſian towns were burnt in one month (February 1238): Baaty puſhed on towards Novgorod, and ordered all the inhabitants on his paſſage to be maſſacred. However, while yet a hundred verſts from Novgorod he ſuddenly turned about, and haſtened back to the regions of the Polovtzes and Bulgarians on the Volga. After ſeveral repeated attacks from the Mongoles, each of which exceeded the former in cruelty, moſt of the ruſſian princes ran off to Poland and

* This title need be ſurpriſing to none. It was a part of the policy of the Mongoles to leave an apparent dignity to the princes in the conquered countries, as they alſo did in Ruſſia.

Hungary,

Hungary, and left the diſpirited people to the fury of theſe military barbarians. At length, after a deſperate reſiſtance of ten weeks, Kief ſurrendered (1240), and received a mongolian viceroy. The grand-duke of Vladimir did homage to the khan of Kaptſchak, who confirmed him in his government and in the paramount lordſhip over the other princes. However, they made a voluntary ſubmiſſion of themſelves to the mongolian ſupremacy, that they might not be the vaſſals of their brethren. All Ruſſia, except Novgorod, was now tributary to the Mongoles, who appointed viceroys every where, though without expelling the ruſſian princes. Baaty khan, by two great armies, ravaged Poland, Sileſia, and Moravia; marched himſelf with a third to Hungary, pillaged and murdered all around, both here and in Slavonia, Boſnia, Servia, and Bulgaria; and then, by a three years abſence, gave ſome reſpite to the plundered and deſolated provinces of Ruſſia.

At the ſame time, while the Mongoles were committing ſuch horrors in Europe, and were proſecuting the war againſt the Koreans and the ſouthern Chineſe, they overran likewiſe the hither Aſia with their numberleſs hoſts. Oktay had ſummoned in vain the ſeldſchukian ſultan of Iconium to do him homage; he now ſent a ſtronger force through Tſcherkaſſia, to make an incur-

incurſion upon Armenia. The Mongoles penetrated into the regions of Arbela, marched through Niniveh, approached Bagdat, conquered Erzerum, ravaged and ſubjugated ſeveral cities and diſtricts of the leſſer Aſia, and made (1242) the ſultan of Iconium their vaſſal. In the following year they carried their inroads into Syria, and came to Aleppo. However, in this year Oktay died, of the conſequences of a propenſity, worthy of this univerſal deſpot*, and his death ſaved Aſia for a time, and Europe for ever.

To the reign of this odious tyrant an interregnum ſucceeded of four years, during which the wife Ilidſchutzay died of grief at the increaſing deſolation of the country which was now become his ſecond home†. The ſucceeding grand-khan

* He died by the effects of a fit of drunkenneſs, in his reſidence Karakorum.

† The widow of Oktay, by whoſe intrigues that prince was thwarted in all his ordinances, now ſet herſelf up as regent of the empire, in which office ſhe was continually making innovations that tended to general miſchief. Theſe, againſt which Ilidſchutzay was ever exerting his utmoſt efforts to no purpoſe, were the chief cauſe of his vexation. On his death, inſtead of the vaſt treaſures that were expected, no property was found in his poſſeſſion, except ſeveral books compoſed by himſelf, on hiſtory, aſtronomy, and political œconomy; collections of coins, maps, pictures, &c. Who does not feel ſatisfaction at finding one man, worthy of that name, among ſuch a horrid crew of blood-thirſty barbarians?

Kayuk

Kayuk was buſily employed in making formidable preparations to carry the war over all Europe, when his ſudden death defeated theſe projects. — His ſucceſſor Manku aboliſhed the kaliphate, and ſubjected the ſultan of Iconium and all Aſia minor, as far as the ſtraights of Conſtantinople, to the mongolian authority, while his brother Koblay, as viceroy of China, proſecuted the war againſt the Song with vigour.

On Manku's death (1259) Koblay was elected grand-khan; this prince, however, remained in China, and in manners and knowledge was a perfect Chineſe. The diſtance of the paramount ſovereign from the other mongolian ſtates, which extended from the eaſtern ocean as far as the Dniepr and the Mediterranean ſea, accelerated by diſcord and ambition the diſſolution, already prepared, of this enormous monarchy, which now ſeparated into the following ſtill very extenſive ſtates: 1. China. 2. Iran (Perſia as far as the hither Aſia). 3. Dſchagatay (ſo called after its founder, as has been remarked above in ſpeaking of the diviſion under the ſucceſſors of Tſchinghis). 4. Kaptſchak. 5. Turan.

Koblay renewed the war with the Song, which at length terminated in the downfal of that dynaſty, and the entire conqueſt of the ſouthern China. — This line of the Tſchinghiſes formed itſelf

itſelf completely on the pattern of the Chineſe; with the ferocity of the Mongoles, they loſt alſo their martial character, and were at laſt driven back into the Mongoley by the native dynaſty of Ming, where their poſterity, under the name of Kalkas-Mongoles, at preſent live in ſubmiſſion to the ſceptre of the Chineſe. — The circumſtances attending the Tſchinghiſes of Iran and Tſchagatay are beſide the limits of the plan we propoſed to ourſelves in this hiſtorical relation; but ſo much the nearer are we intereſted in the ſtates of Kaptſchak and Turan, as the revolutions effected in them are intimately implicated in the hiſtory and the preſent condition of the ruſſian empire.

We have already ſeen in what manner the ſtate of Kaptſchak was founded by Baaty, the kinſman of the great Tſchinghis, and that from 1240, the greater part of Ruſſia was ſubjected to theſe princes. Koblay, at the commencement of his reign, likewiſe made Kaptſchak independent, in purſuance of the example ſet him by his predeceſſors in regard to the other ſtates of the mongolian empire, and from that time forth it was no longer the mongolian grand-khan, but the khan of Kaptſchak, under whoſe ſupremacy Ruſſia ſubſiſted for upwards of two hundred years. In order to rectify a ſlight miſtake, we will

will here endeavour to explain how it happened that this mongolian ſovereignty is conſtantly termed the tartarian in the ruſſian year-books. Mongoles and Tartars are, in their origin, manners, and language, two entirely diſtinct nations: but, on the ſubjugation of the generality of the tartar hordes by Tſchinghis, the two nations were ever more and more aſſimilating with each other. The kaptſchak empire, beſides its own army of mongolian warriors deſtitute of women, had for its inhabitants only genuine Tartars, and by little and little the troops were even completed by Tartars. It was therefore in fact not only Tartars who maintained the mongolian ſovereignty over Ruſſia, but even the Mongolians became in Ruſſia real Tartars, to which the introduction of the mohammedan religion into Kaptſchak, under the ſucceſſors of Baaty, contributed not a little.

From Baaty's time till the year 1441, Kaptſchak formed a large and well-compacted ſtate, governed in an uninterrupted line by the ſucceſſors of that prince. During the former half of that period the ruſſian princes made little or no attempts to rid themſelves of this foreign ſovereignty; but about the middle of the fourteenth century the germ of decay began to expand itſelf in the mongole-tartarian ſtate. The throne

now,

now, on every vacancy, had ſeveral competitors, each endeavouring to enforce his pretenſions by arms, and the approaching downfal of the empire was, amidſt theſe diſturbances, growing more apparent from day to day. The firſt proof of this was given by the ruſſian grand-duke Dmitri Donſkoy, who, in the year 1380, vanquiſhed the khan Mamai in a ſignal and bloody battle on the Don. Yet, it was long before any conſequences favourable to the Ruſſians aroſe from this victory, and two years afterwards Moſco was again laid waſte by the Tartars. In the mean time, however, the demolition of the kaptſchak empire was haſtily advancing, and in the year 1441 it crumbled into four ſmaller ſtates, which in the ſpace of a century afterwards loſt themſelves in the ruſſian body politic, now liberated from its yoke and increaſing in power. Theſe ſtates were: 1. The khanate of Kazan. Ivan I. had already freed himſelf from the ſhackles of dependency, which his predeceſſors had riveted on this empire, and reduced the khan Ahmed, from a paramount lord, to be a tributary vaſſal; but Ivan's ſucceſſor ſaw his country yet ſeveral times ravaged by the Tartars of Kazan, and himſelf under the neceſſity once more to take the oath of fealty. The complete annihilation of this tartarian ſtate was the work of Ivan II.

Ivan II. who in 1552 united the empire of Kazan to Ruſſia for ever. — 2. The khanate of Aſtrakhan fell two years later (1554) into the hands of the ſame victorious chieftain; who, amidſt theſe conqueſts, gained alſo the greater part of, 3. The khanate of Kaptſchak. That part of this ſtate, which upon the ſeparation of the other three khanates ſtill remained, loſt, in the year 1506, its laſt khan, and the remainder of Kaptſchak was partitioned among the khans of the Krimea, of Kazan, and of Aſtrakhan. 4. The khanate of the Krimea was in the year 1783, without the help of the ſword, incorporated by Catharine II. with the ruſſian empire; and thus the laſt branch of the Tſchinghiſes of Kaptſchak was brought under the ſovereignty of their former vaſſals.

A ſimilar fate attended the ſtate of Turan, which, as we have already remarked, aroſe from the ruins of the huge mongolian empire, during the grand-khanate of the Koblay. The founder of this ſtate was a brother of Baaty on the Aral-chain of mountains and about the Yaik, in countries which had been ceded to him by the latter, and which he himſelf afterwards increaſed by conqueſts in Siberia. The ſeries of the khans of Turan cloſed with Kutſchum, who, being firſt defeated by Yermak, the famous Kozak of the

Don, with his ſmall band of adventurers, afterwards reſigned both his empire and his liberty to the Ruſſians. By them, in 1598, he was brought as a priſoner to Moſco, and the entire conqueſt of his territories was completed by the ſubſequent reduction of Siberia.

Ere we conclude this general view of the tranſactions of the Mongoles, we muſt take notice of a conqueror from the body of this people, who formed the reſolution of reſtoring the fallen monarchy, and was ſo fortunate as to execute it in a manner worthy of his predeceſſors. This new deſtroyer was called Timur or Tamerlan, and was prince of Keſch near Samarkand, about the time when the Mongoles were every where diſheartened, and were entirely expelled from China. His dominion took its riſe in the great Bukharia, a part of the antient Dſchagatay. After various turns of fortune *, he ſucceeded in the reduction of that empire; in the year 1369, he received the homage of the grandees and the title of the Sovereign of the World. From this time forth Timur became as great and general a

* On a flight which had once well nigh defeated all his proſpects and hopes, he was ſo poor that he had nothing in the world but a ſorry horſe and an old camel; he, who twenty years afterwards threw the three quarters of the old world into terror, and viſited them with deſolation.

plague

plague as Tſchinghis. In 1371 he invaded Khovareſm, conquered Kaſchgar, hurled the khan of Kaptſchak from the throne, and ſet up another in his place; took the city Khovareſm, and made himſelf maſter of all Khoraſan and Sedſcheſtan, while his generals ſubdued the Avchanians, and captured Kandahar. At the cloſe of the year 1384, he put himſelf in poſſeſſion of moſt of the countries from Perſia to the borders of Armenia; ſhortly after which he laid waſte all the tract from Ili as far as the Irtyſh, routed the khan of Kaptſchak, marched onward to the Volga, and then returned to Samarkand. On opening the campaign of 1393, he made conqueſts in ſouthern Perſia, took Bagdat and various other cities of Meſopotamia and Georgia, forced his way through Derbent into Kaptſchak, ravaged Moſco, and conquered Azof; then proſecuted the ſubjugation of Perſia, and again returned to Samarkand. In the year 1398 he ſet out upon an expedition to India, and croſſed the Ganges. At the commencement of the ſucceeding century, he made an incurſion into mammeluk Syria, conquered Aleppo, Damaſcus, and once more Bagdat: this done, he proceeded again to Georgia, forced Natolia to ſurrender, defeated Bajazet, made him his priſoner, and laid the emperor of Conſtantinople, the ſultan of the Ottomans,

and the Mammeluks under heavy contributions. After this he made another expedition to Georgia; and, in 1404, repaired again to Samarkand. At this place he was attacked by a ſevere and tedious illneſs which terminated in his death, juſt as he was forming the project of marching to China, there to reſtore the dominion of the Mongoles. — As ſuddenly as this common diſturber had completed his amazing conqueſts, ſo rapidly did they fall away under his ſucceſſors; who loſt one after another all the countries which Tamerlan had left them to the Bukharèy and Khorazan; and even theſe the laſt khan, Babur, in 1498, was obliged to abandon, who, however, from an outcaſt and a fugitive, became the founder of the ſtate of Grand-Mongolia in Hindoſtan.

Such were the remarkable cataſtrophes of a nation, which now, degraded from its former grandeur, has ſcarcely any longer a memorial of it; and at preſent can only recollect as in the obſcure and faint repreſentations of a dream, that it once was a nation which domineered over the world *. With the fall of the great mon-

* The chief ſource of mongolian hiſtory is in the chineſe records. The Buræts have only imperfect traditions; but among the Kalmuks and Mongoles are genealogical regiſters of their princely races, which likewiſe contain other hiſtorical accounts.

golian

golian empire of the Tſchinghiſes, began alſo the epocha of their decline; the diſſolution into ſmaller ſtates, which parted again into ſmaller ſtill, and were then reduced to ſubjection, at length brought about a diviſion into ſtems and hordes, and conſequently a complete retrogradation from the ſtate of civilization to the condition of raw uncultivated man. — We will for the preſent paſs over the period in which this ſingular decline took place, in order the ſooner to acquaint ourſelves with the ſtate of the mongolian nations at this day; and afterwards endeavour to trace out the particulars moſt worthy of notice in the hiſtory of the ſeveral races, ſince the deſtruction of the mongolian dominions.

It appears that many centuries ago the Mongoles were divided into two leading nations, whoſe partition might probably be owing either to national circumſtances, or to a natural ſeparation by mountains, and afterwards kept up by the ſeparate intereſts of their princes, or from a national enmity ariſing from perpetual diſſentions. Theſe two nations were brought to a union into one common ſtate by the great Tſchinghis; but, on the deſtruction of the monarchy erected by him, they were ſeparated again by the antient feuds, and have ever ſince, to their mutual ruin, been engaged in almoſt perpetual hoſtilities.

The Mongoles, properly ſo called, compoſe the one, and the Dœrbœn-Oiræt the other of theſe nations.

Dœrbœn-Oiræt means the Quadruple-alliance, and is the common appellative of four principal races, namely, the Œlœt, Kho-it, Tummut, and Barga-Burat. The Œlœt are properly that branch, which in weſtern Aſia and in Europe are known under the name of Kalmuks: the ſecond ſhoot, Kho-it, is, by wars and migrations, ſo effaced and diſperſed, as at preſent, beſides ſome remains among the Soongares and Mongoles, to be totally vaniſhed: of the Tummut, even the place of their preſent abode is not certainly known *: and the fourth and laſt ſtem, Barga-Burat, which probably at the time of the troubles excited by Tſchinghis took up its reſidence in the mountains about the Baikal, has, with all its branches, ever ſince the conqueſt of Siberia, been under the ruſſian ſovereignty. — Of theſe four ſtems, therefore, only the firſt and

* The Kalmuks themſelves have no knowledge whither this ſtem retreated; they only believe that they muſt ſtill be ſubſiſting ſomewhere in the interior or eaſtern parts of Aſia. As, according to authentic accounts, a populous mongolian race called Tummut, now inhabits the region between the river Naun and the chineſe wall, we may, with great appearance of probability, ſuppoſe it to be the loſt race of Oiræt.

the

the laſt are a ſubject for hiſtory; as they, with the Mongoles, are the only mongolian tribes, with which, either here or in the ſequel, we have any thing to do.

1. The MONGOLES comprehend the remainder of that people, who, as we have ſeen above, were driven out of China in the fourteenth century by the dynaſty of Ming, and are at preſent for the moſt part under the Mandſhur ſovereigns of that empire; though a ſmall portion of them own the ruſſian ſceptre. Since the demolition of the ſoongarian authority, and the reſtoration of peace in the Mongolèy, they have dwelt in the ſpacious region between Siberia and proper China, from the Eaſtern-ocean to the Soongarèy, and at preſent there is ſcarcely any diſcernible difference between the yellow Mongoles*, living from remote ages under the chineſe protection, and the former Tſchinghiſes or Kalkas-Mongoles.

When Siberia was conquered by the Ruſſians at the beginning of the ſeventeenth century, the Mongoles were ſtill a free and numerous people, governed by its own khans, under whoſe ſovereignty alſo were ſeveral ſiberian nations. They at firſt ſubmitted to the ruſſian arms; ſoon afterwards however they regained their liberty, and even granted ſupport to ſeveral of the nations of

* Scharra-Monggol.

Siberia in their reſiſtance to that power. In their inteſtine wars with the Kalmuks they generally came off conquerors, with the loſs however of one race after the other. Their frequent and bloody wars with China turned out ſtill more unfortunately for them, as their perpetual feuds finally terminated in a complete ſubjugation. Continually haraſſed by the chineſe government, they are at preſent almoſt totally out of condition to riſk any attempts at liberating themſelves from the yoke; though they have preſerved their paternal ſeat, and oſtenſibly live under the government of their own hereditary princes *.

The Mongoles, at preſent among the inhabitants of the ruſſian empire, in the laſt century withdrew themſelves from the chineſe dominion, and voluntarily put themſelves under the ruſſian ſupremacy. This example, in all likelihood would have been followed by ſeveral other races,

* China kept in the Mongolèy a conſiderable number of forts, at which the chieftains of the Mongoles were obliged to ſtop. Theſe formerly obtained from the Dalai-lama the title of khan or Khuntaidſchi; at preſent they are forced to ſubmit to have their officers appointed by the Chineſe. The nation itſelf is put under a military form of government, in lieu of the tribute, not unlike to that of the Kozaks; and through the continual and heavy ſervice, not only very burdenſome, but renders them contemptible in the eyes of the Chineſe, who hold the ſtate of a ſoldier to be almoſt infamous.

if

if Ruſſia had not bound herſelf in a border-treaty with China at the beginning of this century, not to give admittance any more to mongolian runaways. The ruſſian Mongoles inhabit the regions about the Selenga in the irkutſkoi diſtrict of the government of Irkutſk, their dwelling-place extending from the 122d to the 125th deg. of long. and between the 50th and 53d deg. of north lat. They conſiſt of ſeven ſtems, and theſe of twenty families or aimaks, which, by the enumeration of the year 1766, beſides 219 baptiſed, compriſed 6918 males.

2. The ŒLŒTS or KALMUKS are at preſent the moſt remarkable branch of the Dœrbœn-Oiræt, as in general of the mongole nations. They themſelves affirm their home to have been between the Koko-noor * and Thibet. Long before Tſchinghis-khan, according to the old reports of this people, the greateſt and mightieſt part of the Œlœt made a military expedition weſtward as far as the leſſer Aſia, and there loſt themſelves among the mountains of Caucaſus; but the reſt, who had ſtaid behind in great Tartary, received from their tartarian neighbours, the name Khalimak (the ſeparated). In fact, they call themſelves alſo Khalmik, though Œlœt is always their peculiar denomination, which

* Blue lake.

word

word likewiſe denotes a ſeparated, disjoined, or diſtinct nation. — The Œlœts divide themſelves, at leaſt ſince the deſtruction of the mongolian monarchy, in four main ſhoots, who denominate themſelves Khoſchot, Derbet, Soongarr, and Torgot; and, from the time of their ſeparation from the Mongoles, have all along been ſubjected to various princely families.

The major part of the KHOSCHOTAN Kalmuks are ſaid to have kept in and about Thibet and on the Koko-noor, and after the downfall of the ſoongarian power to have remained under the protection of the Chineſe. The ſmaller part of this ſtock had long before withdrawn to the banks of the Irtyſh, and fell at length under the dominion of the ſoongarian horde with which it made common cauſe in the wars againſt China, and was alſo diſperſed at the ſame time with the Soongarians. Thoſe under the chineſe ſovereignty, the ſtill united horde of the Khoſchotes, are eſtimated at 50,000 heads. They are reputed to have had their name, which implies warrior or hero, from the courage they diſplayed under the command of Tſchinghis; and, as well on account of this circumſtance, as becauſe they derive their princely race in uninterrupted ſucceſſion from the brother of the great Tſchinghis, they preſerve a ſuperiority of

rank before the other kalmuk hordes. — The number of the Khoſchotes ſubject to Ruſſia is but ſmall. In the year 1675 there came 1500, and in 1759 an additional 300 families to the ſhores of the Volga, where they ſettled and voluntarily ſubmitted to the ruſſian ſovereignty.

The SOONGARES, at the ſeparation of the mongolian monarchy, formed but one ſtock with the Derbetans, who afterwards parted, under two diſcordant brothers of their princely family. It was this horde, which in the laſt and at the beginning of the preſent century, reduced to their ſubjection a great part of the other kalmuk races, particularly the Khoſcot, Derbet, and Kho-it, and waged bloody wars with the Mongoles as well as with the chineſe empire itſelf, but which ended in their total ſubjugation and diſperſion. Previous to this unhappy period, they, together with the Derbets, numbered upwards of 50,000 bows, or fighting men, and paſſed in modern times for the braveſt, richeſt, and moſt powerful horde. Their ſeat was formerly about the Balkhaſh-lake and its rivers Tſchuy and Ily, and their moſt flouriſhing period was between the years 1696 and 1746. The towns of the eaſtern Bukharia and the great kirghiſe horde were about this time tributary to them. They conquered Budala, the capital

capital of the Dalai-lama, and raiſed conteſts in Siberia, where they made tributary ſome nations belonging to Ruſſia. On the death of their khan Galdan Zeren, a diſſolution of the horde enſued, occaſioned by diſputes concerning the ſucceſſion, when the Torgots, the Khoſchotes, and Derbets ſeparated from it. A great part of the Soongarians diſperſed themſelves in the interior parts of Aſia, and quite into the uſbek towns; ſome thouſands of them fled into Siberia; and the generality accommodated themſelves to the chineſe ſovereignty; and, from their own ſtatements, it appears, that ſcarcely 20,000 families of them and the derbetan nation are now remaining. — The number of the Soongares, who at that time (1758) took refuge in Ruſſia amounted to about 20,000 heads; they were united with the volgaic Kalmuks, but for the moſt part returned with them in the year 1770 again into the Soongarèy.

The DERBETANS, who in the beginning had their paſturages in the region of the Koko-noor, removed thence, on account of the mongolian diſturbances, towards the Irtyſh, and, on that occaſion, ſplit into two parties. One of them united, as we have before obſerved, with the Soongares, in whoſe fortunes and final diſſolution it was at once involved; the other proceeded

ceeded weſtward with the Torgots, towards the Yaik, (now Ural), as far as the Volga and the Don, where it completely ſettled. So long ago as the year 1673 they put themſelves, 5000 kibitkies (tents or families) in number, under the khan of the Torgots, who were then on the river Ural, and did homage to the ruſſian empire. In the ſequel the derbetan princes, unwilling to remain any longer in ſubjection to the Torgots, went, on the death of khan Ayuka in 1723, with their people to the parts beyond the Don; at that time they were eſtimated at 14,000 kibitkies. Since that time the ruſſian government had reaſon to oblige the khan Lava Donduk to put himſelf under the protection of the khans of the Krimea; and this occaſioned the horde to remove once more to join the Torgots on the Volga. In the famous flight of the year 1770 they took no part, as they dreaded the being ſubjugated by the Torgots, but remained quiet under the prince Zenden, on the ſhores of the Volga.

The TORGOTS ſeem to have formed themſelves into a particular horde much later than the other kalmuk branches. At firſt they removed from the reſtleſs Soongares, marching conſtantly weſtward till they came to the ſteppes on the Volga, where they finally ſettled, and received

ceived from the Ruſſians the appellation of the volgaic Kalmuks. In the year 1616 this horde is ſaid to have ſubmitted to the ruſſian empire; at their croſſing the Ural in 1662, they numbered themſelves, and found the amount to be 50,000 kibitkies. Their forenamed khan Ayuka brought a great part of the nogayan Tartars in ſubjection to them, when the latter were intending to ſpread themſelves beyond the river Ural; one of the ſons of this prince took his flight with 15,000 kibitkies into the Soongarèy. Khan Donduk Ombo, the ſucceſſor of Ayuka, reduced 6000 tents of Truchmenians and 8000 tents of khundurovian Tartars under the command of his horde, from which, however, the major part of the latter fled back. In the year 1761 the ruſſian government came to an agreement with this opulent and powerful horde which reſtricted the authority of the khans to narrower bounds, and excited ſuch diſcontents, that they returned in the winter of 1770 and 1771 to the amount of between 55 and 60,000 kibitkies, over the ice of the river Ural, acroſs the kirghiſian ſteppe, into the Soongarèy. This memorable tranſaction, which in the eighteenth century, and within the borders of a poliſhed ſtate, preſents a lively image of the antient migrations of ſwarms of people, principally

principally took its rise from the irritation of the khan, on his being associated with deputies of the princes of the horde, whom he could not depose at will, and who received an assessor from the chancery of the government of Astrakhan; seconded by the complaints of the people of the want of pasture for their numerous droves, and the prophecies of the clergy that the horde would soon be compelled to adopt the christian faith, to follow agriculture, and to deliver recruits. — It has already been observed, that even the greater part of the Soongares took part in this migration; only some few aimaks of the Torgots remained behind; but the Tartars in subjection to the horde refused to follow them. The russian government, indeed, caused the fugitives to be pursued, but they fled with such velocity, that only a few of them were overtaken and brought back. Numbers of them perished on this painful journey; a great part were taken prisoners by the Kirghises; those who reached the place of their destination put themselves under the protection of the chinese government, who immediately gave them a kind reception, but, for political reasons, afterwards treated them with extreme severity *.

The whole amount of the Kalmuks that remained in Russia, were estimated a few years

* See the Life of Catharine II. 3d edit. vol. ii. p. 175, & sqq.

ago

ago at ſomewhat more than 20,000 tents. Theſe are the remains of all the four ſtems; but the Khoſchotes, the Soongares, and Torgots, who either ſtaid or were caught on their flight and brought back, and are diſtributed among the Derbets, who, beſides ſeveral petty princes, have a taipſcha or khan preſiding over them. They wander, with their flocks and herds, in the ſteppes between the Don and the Volga, from the line of Tzaritzin as far as Caucaſus; and between the Volga and the river Ural, from the Irghis quite to the Caſpian; therefore in the governments of Saratof and Aſtrakhan, and in the ſeats of the Kozaks of the Don.

In addition to theſe there is ſtill a particular and numerous colony of BAPTIZED KALMUKS. Towards the cloſe of the laſt century many, even diſtinguiſhed and noble, members of this nation began to profeſs themſelves of the chriſtian faith. As the neighbourhood with their unbaptized fellow-races gave occaſion to diſagreements and controverſies, the government, in the year 1737, eſtabliſhed the former in a fruitful region about the rivers Samara, Sok, and Tok, (in the preſent government of Simbirſk, and in the orenburg diſtrict of the government of Ufa), and granted them alſo the city of Stavropol, which is now a chief town of the government of Simbirſk. The increaſe of this colony

colony was ſo conſiderable, that in the year 1771 they could reckon nearly 14,000 heads, whereas in 1754 they were only 8695. — There is yet ſubſiſting in the government of Ufa a ſmall colony of MOHAMMEDAN KALMUKS, which ſprung up from individual proſelytes made by the Kirghiſes and adopted by that body.

3. The third and laſt mongolian nation, which ſtill merits the name of a diſtinct people, are the BARGA-BURAT, called by the Ruſſians Buræti or Bratſkiye. That this nation compoſed one of the four ſtems of the Dœrbœn-Oiræts has been already mentioned. The Burats ſeem, about the time of the mongolian monarchy, or ſtill earlier, to have taken refuge in the wild mountainous region on the north ſide of the Baikal, which they ſtill inhabit. Should they even not have avoided the conquering arms of Tſchinghis, yet they appear ſhortly afterwards to have recovered their liberty, when the mongolian monarchy made China its ſeat of empire, and the ſtems that wandered about the remoter regions began to diſperſe. The Ruſſians found this nation in Siberia at their conqueſt of that country; and from the year 1644 they have peaceably accommodated themſelves to the ruſſian ſupremacy. The whole buræt nation is

at preſent, in conſequence of the border-treaty, under the dominion of Ruſſia, and forms the numerous heatheniſh people in the government of Irkutſk, where it inhabits the region from the Yeniſſey, along the mongole-chineſe borders, on the Angara, Tunguſka, and the upper Lena, about the ſouthern Baikal, on the Selenga, the Argoon, and its rivers. Several years ago this government was computed to contain 32,000 tributary Burætes; and, beſides theſe, there were a few ſtems and races in the kraſnoyarſkoi circle of the government of Kolhyvan on the right bank of the Yeniſſey. If we take into the account the defects of an enumeration attended with ſo many difficulties, the female ſex, and the natural increaſe of the people in ſuch a ſucceſſion of years, we may admit their number to be four times as large without treſpaſſing too much upon probability.

SECTION IV.

Tartars.

A FOURTH primitive ſtock of the nations dwelling in Ruſſia are the TARTARS. This national appellative is ſo much miſapplied, that with ſome inquirers into hiſtory a doubt has even ariſen, whether there ever was a peculiar people of

of that name. Under this denomination have been implied all tribes beyond Perſia and India as far as the Eaſtern ocean, however differing from each other in regard to their origin, language, manners, religion, and cuſtoms. Now, that we are better acquainted with theſe nations, we know that the Tartars in reality compoſe a diſtinct nation which originally belonged to the great turkiſh ſtock *.

The firſt known mother-country of the Turks or Tartars lies ſomewhere in the countries on

* The name TARTAR may either, 1. really originate from a turkiſh horde, which bore this domination, as Abulgaſi, the hiſtorian of his own nation, affirms; and as from circumſtances is very likely, that the Yakutes, among their deities, have a Tatar, who probably enjoys that honour as the patriarch of the nation; or it may alſo 2. be derived from the Chineſe, who call all their neighbours, without diſtinction, Tata or Ta-dſe; which latter hypotheſis acquires ſome weight from this circumſtance, that the Perſians and Arabians know nothing of the Tartars under that appellation. It was firſt brought into general uſe in Europe after Baaty's incurſion into Hungary under king Frederic II. Uncertain, however, as this denomination is, it nevertheleſs ſeems clear, that the Tartars are of turkiſh origin, and that their proper name was Turk or Turkoman, and not Tatar. Not only the learned of their own nation affirm this to be the caſe, but the tartarian language is ſtill really nothing but the old-turkiſh. The modern ottoman Turks ſpeak even the tartarian tongue, only in another dialect.

the eaſtern and northern ſides of the Caſpian, where their deſcendants have ſtill their ſeats. In antient times they were ſpread from the Axus or Gihon into the Mongoley and the Orenburg territory; that is, in regions where they had conſtantly ambitious and domineering nations for their neighbours and enemies: on the eaſt ſide the Chineſe; ſouth-weſtwards the Perſians, Macedonians, Romans, Partho-perſians, and Arabians; and laſtly the Mongoles in the north-eaſt. Here they ſerved from time immemorial as a mound againſt the incurſions of the nations who would penetrate from the eaſt to the weſt or contrariwiſe, till at length the Mongoles, like a ruſhing ſtream that has burſt its banks, ſwept away all oppoſition. Like all other nations, at their origin, the Turks at firſt divided only into ſtems and hordes, the names whereof have been preſerved to us by the tartar, perſian, and chineſe hiſtorians. A main ſtock already appears in Herodotus under the name of the Maſſagetes, whom Strabo acknowledges for brethren of the Khoraſmians, and who by a conſtant repetition of great actions, and by the commerce of the hither-Aſiatic and eaſtern-European nations with Serika, are preſerved in remembrance by hiſtorians and geographers, though their hiſtory is neither connected nor complete. The appellative

tive Turks was borne about the year 545—how much earlier is not known—only by that part of the nation which had long had its habitations in the Altay-mountains along the Irtyſh, where that people in the middle of the ſixth century founded a ſtate, which ſoon became ſo powerful as to give diſturbance to China and Perſia, and to have an interchange of ambaſſadors with the eaſt Romans. In the ſame century, however, this ſtate ſplit into two great parts which afterwards ſeparated into ſeveral petty khanates, and at length chiefly became a prey to the victorious Arabs, till the primitive Turks ſucceeded once more in founding conſiderable ſtates in the kaliphate itſelf.

Eight turkiſh tribes by degrees now make their entrance on the ſtage of hiſtory, cauſing great revolutions both in Europe and in Aſia, founding empires, and performing the part of nations aiming at univerſal dominion. Three of them, who had penetrated early into Europe, attract our attention principally on account of their relations with the ruſſian empire: the Khazares, the Petſchenegrans, and the Uzes.

The KHAZARES, a bold and powerful nation, had their original home on the iſthmus of Caucaſus between the Caſpian and the ſea of Azof. In the ſeventh century they began to be famous,

mous, and till towards the middle of the ninth century their ſtate was in an increaſing and flouriſhing condition. About that time the empire of the Khazares extended from the Volga and the Caſpian, acroſs the caucaſian iſthmus, the peninſula of the Krimea, and what is now the ſouth of Ruſſia, as far as to Moldavia and Valakhia; and ſeveral ſlavonian tribes, particularly the Polianes about Kief and on the Dniepr, the Severans on the rivers Deſna, Sem, and Sula, the Viatitſches on the Oka, and the Radimitſches on the Soſha, were tributary to them. But after the year 862 three nations wrought their downfal: the Ruſſians, the Petſchenegrans, and the Uzes. The varagian or ruſſian leaders, Oſkold and Dir, raviſhed from them the dominion over the Polianes; Oleg, in 884, reduced the Severans and the Radimitſches to his authority. His ſucceſſor, in 964, conquered the territory of the Viatitſches and the nine khazarian countries on the iſthmus of Caucaſus. The Khazares loſt the remainder of their dominion about 1016 to the combined forces of the Ruſſians and eaſt Romans. The nation, indeed, continued for ſome time longer, but they were ſubmiſſive and tributary to the Ruſſians.

The PETSCHENEGRANS, as they are called in the ruſſian and poliſh year-books, name themſelves

ſelves Kangar or Kangli, and were a powerful nomadic nation, which we can trace back to a homeſtead on the rivers Volga and Ural. They became firſt known in Europe by their incurſion into the Khazarian empire in 839, and by their wars in 867 with the Slavonians, but ſhortly before made tributary to the Khazares. Driven from their ſeats by the Uzes and Khazares, they made themſelves maſters of the country between the Don and the Dnieſtr, and thence expelled the Hungarians ſubject to the Khazares. In the eleventh century they broke up and migrated towards Moravia, Bulgaria, and Thrace, and eſtabliſhed themſelves, after committing frequent ravages in the countries of the eaſt Romans, in Dardania and the leſſer Scythia. At the cloſe of the twelfth century they poſſeſſed a part of Tranſylvania; but about that time they gradually vaniſh out of hiſtory.

The Uzes, called alſo Kumanians or Polovtzes, appear already in Herodotus and Strabo. About the time when they firſt make their entrance in hiſtory as an active nation (883), that is, when, in conjunction with the Khazares, they drove the Petſchenegrans from their homeſteads, they had already extended themſelves from Khareſm and the mountains of Kitzig-Tag, as far as the nether Volga. They now

took the countries of the expelled Petſchenegrans into poſſeſſion, and one of their ſtems made themſelves maſters of the original abodes of the Khazares, on the weſtern ſide of the Volga and the Caſpian as far as Derbent. In the eleventh century they even ſpread into the eaſtern parts of Europe. They raviſhed from the Petſchenegrans almoſt all that they had hitherto poſſeſſed in that quarter of the globe, particularly the Krim, the countries between the Don and the Dniepr, with Moldavia and Valakhia. After they had continued their ravages for a long time in Bulgaria, Thrace, Tranſylvania, and Hungary, and were in a great meaſure brought to ruin, they at laſt ſettled in Hungary. Towards the end of the eleventh century, they captured the north-eaſtern part of the Kuban from the Ruſſians, who were at that time torn to pieces by inteſtine diſſenſions. In the former half of the thirteenth century they loſt by the Tſchinghiſes, Moldavia, Valakhia, and the Krim. In the year 1330 the Kumanians were numbered among the nations tributary to the ſtate of Hungary; but from that time they ceaſe to be an hiſtorical nation.

Beſide the foregoing and ſeveral other turkiſh tribes that raiſed themſelves to be independent or dominant nations, there were many ſeparate branches

branches of the ſame ſtem, the tranſactions and circumſtances whereof, though not unknown, are not ſubjects for univerſal hiſtory, and of whom, therefore, little more is ſtated than the bare names. To this remark the Tartars are an exception, who indeed did not attain to any hiſtorical memorial till their ſubjugation by the Mongoles, yet whoſe earlier deſtinies, on account of the importance and extenſiveneſs of that nation, excited ſome intereſt in the ſucceeding times.

Abu'l Gaſi Bahatur khan *, who has given a copious though not a complete liſt of the turkiſh ſtems, mentions among them the tartarian as one of the moſt antient and famous, and derives its origin from a khan of the name Tatar. This ſtem, which in proceſs of time increaſed to

* This hiſtorian was prince of Khareſm, and died in the year 1663. His ſon and ſucceſſor Anuſha Mahmed khan completed the work of Abulgaſi, which bears the title of "A genealogical hiſtory of the Turks," and has been tranſlated into ruſs, german, french, and engliſh. The imperial academy of ſciences at St. Peterſburg is in poſſeſſion of two good manuſcripts of the tartarian original, and a written tranſlation in german conſiſting of two folio volumes made more than forty years ago by profeſſor Kehr immediately from the tartarian. He entitles this work: "A "faithful tranſlation from the tartarian original text of the "Ghiviſchian ruler Abu'l Gaſi Bahatur khan's Mongole-"tartarian-turkiſh family-regiſter and chronicle."

70,000

70,000 families, was at firſt governed by its own commander, and afterwards divided into various branches, and ſpread into ſeveral and very diſtant regions, whereby their power was in ſome degree weakened. The moſt conſiderable branch ſettled on the borders of Kitay (China), and fell under the ſovereignty of that empire, againſt which it frequently rebelled, and thereby gave occaſion to ruinous wars. At the time of Tſchinghis ſome Tartars dwelt on the Onon or Amoor, who were tributary to the emperor of Kin, reigning in Kitay. Even Yeſſukai, the father of Tſchinghis, had waged bloody wars with one of the tartarian race.

The Tartars only began to acquire ſome conſequence in hiſtory at the time of their ſubjugation by the Mongoles. The very firſt enterprife of the great Tſchinghis was againſt this people; and it is certain that this conqueror, ere he ravaged China with his armies, had already reduced all the tartar hordes to his authority, and was in quiet poſſeſſion of their dominion, ſo that on his expedition againſt the Niudſches he had no obſtacle to fear on this ſide. But, from the moment that the hiſtory of the Tartars excites attention, it ceaſes to be the hiſtory of a peculiar nation. Diſtributed under the banners and commanders of the Mongoles, theſe enjoy with poſterity

terity the glory of their victories and conquests, while, by a surprising caprice of fortune, the Tartars are obliged to lend their name to the devastations with which both nations every where marked the bloody progress of their armies. The subsequent events of this people have in part been already noticed under the last head of the historical sketch of the Mongoles, and the rest will be mentioned when we come to the account of the particular tartarian nations.

One consequence of the tartarian subjugation was, that the name of this nation which hitherto, out of China and the Mongoley, had been unknown to the rest of the world, began now to spread themselves in the western Asia and in Europe, and presently caused a complete interchange of victor and vanquished. In the later military expeditions of Tschinghis, the Tartars were by far the most numerous part of his army, as we are justified in concluding from the single circumstance, that in all the conquered countries which before had had their proper language, not the mongolian but the tartarian became the predominant tongue; as, in the lesser and the greater Bukharia, among the Bashkirs and Tschuvasches, in the Krim and in the Kuban, &c. — Nothing was therefore more natural, than that the incomparably greater number of the Tartars

expunged

expunged the mongolian names in all the weſtern countries: beſides, wars undertaken in conjunction, a community of habitation, and one common ruler, were favourable to the commixture of the two nations, the veſtiges whereof, however, upon the demolition of the mongolian monarchy, are ſo much effaced, that at preſent, excepting in a diſtant ſimilarity of ſpeech *, the ſlighteſt relationſhip is no longer viſible. Even the lineaments of the face, and in their political conſtitution, (that of the Tartars partaking more of the democratical, as that of the Mongoles does of the monarchical,) the two nations diſcover a difference extremely characteriſtic, which is only leſs ſtriking in particular races; for inſtance, in the Kuſnetſki-tartars, the Yakutes, and ſome others.

On the death of Tſchinghis-khan, to maintain and people the conquered countries numerous

* The tartarian language has mongolian words, which are not to be found in the turkiſh. The reaſon of this is probably becauſe the ſoldiers of the mongolian army, being all unmarried, the race became extinct, and the offspring they had by the tartarian women in the conquered countries rather caught the language of their mothers than the more difficult dialect of their fathers, whence it happened, that in theſe countries, only a ſlight knowledge of the latter remained, which was afterwards ever more and more getting into diſuſe, till at laſt only a few words of the language of the original country were left remaining.

colo-

colonizings were neceſſary, by which an almoſt general tranſplantation and migration of mongole and tartar ſtems enſued. This was the common policy of the ſucceſſors of Tſchinghis, who withdrew with their hordes to the countries which had fallen to their ſhare from the great maſs of his conqueſts *. We are not therefore to be ſurpriſed at finding tartarian tribes and races beyond the boundaries of their country, and ſometimes in very diſtant regions: the Naimans, for example, are entirely vaniſhed, at leaſt, excepting their name, from their original home; but they appear again in the weſt among the Uſbeks, and in the eaſt about the river Sira, above the province Lea-tong. A ſimilar fate has befallen the generality of the ſtems, as we ſhall ſee when we come to treat of the ſiberian Tartars.

The final cataſtrophe of the great mongole-tartarian monarchy, and the ſubjugation of the ſeveral countries into which that monſtrous ſtate

* The Uſbeks, for example, or the Tartars, as they are called, in the great Bukharia and in Khoraſm, conſiſt, according to Abulgaſi, of four main ſtocks, of which the Naimanes and Igures are known from the hiſtory of Tſchinghis. But theſe two hordes formerly dwelt, the former on the weſtern ſide of the native territories of Tſchinghis, and the latter in Turfan.

divided,

divided, as to their moſt remarkable particulars, have been already noticed under the foregoing head. As we there gave ſome account of the preſent ſtate of the mongole nation, we will here caſt an eye upon the exiſting conſtitution of the Tartars in general, and then proceed to lay before the reader the ſtate of the particular ſtems that now belong to the ruſſian empire.

Not only ſubjugated in their conquered countries, but even forced from a great part of their old homeſtead, only ſome few of the hordes, in reference to the whole tartarian nation, have preſerved their independence; thoſe, namely, who inhabit the ſouth-weſtern part of the former great Tartary, towards the perſian, indian, and ſoongarian borders. Here we find the great Kirghiſian-horde, the Bukharians, the Khivans or Khivinſes, the Karakalpaks, Truchmenes, Taſchkentians, Turkoſtans, Aralians, and ſome other races, which ſtill form diſtinct ſtates, and retain a ſort of national liberty, but are all together ſo little formidable to their neighbours, that they ſeek protection wherever they are moſt likely to find it, according to their political ſituation, ſometimes from one power, and ſometimes from another. The whole remains of this nation,

once

once ſo great, now ſubſiſt under foreign ſovereignty. Many hordes belong, either as ſubjects, or as dependent wards of the ruſſian empire; others are in like manner appanages to the ottoman Turks, or ſubject to the great Mogul, to China, and to Perſia.

The Tartars belonging to the rūſſian empire inhabit the northern coaſts of the Euxine and the Caſpian, the north ſide of the caucaſean mountains, the extenſive ſteppes from the river Ural to the Soongarèy, the ſouthern Ural, in Siberia the ſouthern frontier mountains and ſteppes from the Tobol quite over the Yeniſſey, and the deſerts in the middle region of the Lena; likewiſe not a few tartar colonies are diſperſed among the ruſſian habitations, particularly in the governments of Ufa, Kazan, and Tobolſk.

As theſe regions have for the moſt part, ſince the flouriſhing epocha of the mongole-tartarian monarchy, been inhabited by them, frequent memorials are found there of their antient grandeur, magnificence, and culture, of which ſome are of an antiquity demonſtrably of above a thouſand years. It is no rare thing to come ſuddenly upon the ruins of ſome town, which, in its crumbling remains, plainly evinces the progreſs which the arts had made among a people

whom we are wont to conſider as barbarians *. Still more frequently are ſeen ſepulchres, which, by their inſcriptions throw light upon the hiſtory of this nation; and, in the veſſels and implements preſerved in them, ſupply us with intereſting proofs of its opulence, its taſte, and its induſtry †. — Theſe matters properly belonging to the hiſtory of civilization, which will be found

* Near Kaſimof, on the Oka, a circle-town of the government of Riazań, is ſtanding a tartarian ſuburb, which ſeems formerly to have been the court-reſidence of a khan. Among the ruins is a lofty round tower, an oratory or chapel, the remains of a palace and a mauſoleum, all conſtructed of brick or burnt tiles. Not far from Aſtrakhan are the ruins of the old Aſtrakhan; and higher up the Volga, near Tzaritzin, ſimilar heaps of rubbiſh which have evidently been a ſpacious town. On the Volga, below the mouth of the Kama, are found well-preſerved and partly magnificent remains of the antient Brachtimof, or Bolgar. In the citadel of Kazan are ſtill ſeen monuments of the tartarian monarchy. On the Irtyſh, in the vicinity of Tobolſk, are the remains of Sibir, the capital. In Siberia and the kirghiſian ſteppe are many ruins of towns, not to mention memorials of inferior conſequence.

† In the muſeum of the imperial academy of ſciences at St. Peterſburg, are preſerved a multitude of veſſels, diadems, weapons, military trophies, ornaments of dreſs, coins, &c. which have been found in the tartarian tombs on the Volga and in Siberia. They are of gold, ſilver, and copper. The greateſt antiquity of the tombs is 1100 years, the lateſt 400.

in

in other parts of this work, we ſhall here be the leſs circumſtantial, and only farther remark, that the Tartars, next to the principal nation *, conſtitute the moſt numerous part of the inhabitants of the ruſſian empire. The branches of this nation which belong to Ruſſia are, the proper Tartars, the Nogayans, the Meſchtſcheryaks, the Baſchkirs, the Kirghiſes, the Bukharians, the Yakutes, and the Teleutes; to which may in ſome ſort be added the tribes of Caucaſus.

1. By the term PROPER TARTARS are underſtood in Ruſſia all thoſe ſtocks, which call themſelves by no other name, and are for the moſt part deſcendants of the inhabitants of thoſe two great ſtates, which the ſucceſſors of Tſchingis erected on the Volga and in Siberia. We will, therefore, in the account of their preſent condition, follow this diviſion, firſt making ourſelves acquainted with the KAPTSCHAK, and afterwards with the SIBERIAN TARTARS.

The ſtate of Kaptſchak, which Baaty, the kinſman of the great Tſchinghis, had founded, fell, as we have above related, in the year 1441, into four khanates: Kazan, Aſtrakhân, Kaptſchak, and the Krim. The firſt three were,

* Not long ſince it was ſo. At preſent probably the Poles are more numerous than the Tartars.

ſomewhat more than a hundred years afterwards, conquered by the Ruſſians; but the fourth of theſe ſtates preſerved its independency above two hundred and thirty years longer. At preſent they all together form a part of the ruſſian empire.

The khanate of Kaptſchak, which, from the time of its ſeparation in 1441, has its principal ſeat in the plain which is now called the aſtrakhan-ſteppe, came the earlieſt to its downfal. So long ago as the year 1506 it loſt its laſt khan, and was divided among the ſovereigns of Kazan, Aſtrakhan, and the Krim, on which at length it came to Ruſſia by the conqueſt of the two former ſtates. Theſe repeated ſubjugations had reduced the kaptſchak Tartars to an inſignificant remainder, which now, removed from its antient homeſtead, dwells among Baſchkirs and Kirghiſes, though ſtill retaining its appellation and the memory of its origin.

The khanate of Kazan ſubſiſted as a peculiar ſtate till the year 1552, when it was conquered by Ivan II. and incorporated for ever with the ruſſian empire. The city of Kazan had been built in the year 1257, by a ſon of Baaty; this khanate aſſerted its independency about the ſame time (1441) when the Krim disjoined itſelf from Kaptſchak. — The preſent kazan Tartars are but

but a feeble remnant of what they were, partly conſiſting of thoſe who remained in their old ſeats, and partly ſuch as ſettled as fugitives in other diſtricts of Ruſſia. They principally dwell at preſent in the governments of Kazan, Simbirſk, Riaſan, Viatka, Perme, and Ufa (particularly in the orenburg diſtrict of that government); their number is indeed upon the whole conſiderable, but in no degree proportionate to the idea we form of their antient population, from hiſtorical accounts; for, as far as we are able to conclude from particular ſtatements, they cannot amount to far above 100,000. Theſe Tartars form the root of the nation in Ruſſia; they being not only unmingled, but are alſo of a ſuperior civilization to moſt of the remaining branches of their brethren.

The khanate of Aſtrakhan aroſe ſoon after that of Kazan, likewiſe from a detached part of Kaptſchak, and, in the year 1554, fell into the hands of the victorious Ivan. The preſent city of Aſtrakhan, however, is not the tartarian chief ſeat, which was conquered and deſtroyed by that tzar: the ruins of the latter being ſtill to be ſeen ſomewhat higher up on the weſtern bank of the Volga. — The preſent ASTRAKHAN TARTARS are for the moſt part Nogayans. They are diſtinguiſhed into town, village, and

tent Tartars. The firſt dwell in Aſtrakhan, the ſecond in ſix villages near Aſtrakhan, and the tent-Tartars wander about the Caſpian. At the conqueſt of Aſtrakhan, the town and village Tartars reckoned themſelves at 25,000 bows; in the year 1715 there were ſtill 12,000 of them; but in 1772 they were only 1200, and of the tent-Tartars ſcarcely 2000 kettles or families. This decline proceeds from their rambling diſpoſition, ſo often moving them to change their homeſtead: they went off ſingly and in companies, to the caucaſean and krimean Tartars, to the Baſchkirs and even to the Kirghiſes.

The khanate of the Krim, which, as far down as to the year 1783, ſtill conſtituted a peculiar ſtate, now alſo belongs to the ruſſian empire. As the hiſtory of the peninſula of the Krimea commences long before the origin of the great kaptſchakian empire, and the fortunes of this country excited an intereſt even in the poliſhed nations of antiquity, it cannot well be conſidered as a uſeleſs deviation from our plan, if we devote a few lines to the earlier ſtate of this province, previous to the poſſeſſion of it by the Tartars.

The firſt known inhabitants of the Krim were Kimmerians, a great and martial people of the race of the Thracians. Of all their extenſive poſſeſſions, which were raviſhed from them by the

the Skythians, they retained the Krim the longeſt. Six hundred and fifty-five years before the chriſtian æra, they were, it ſeems, driven from the plain by theſe their ſtronger neighbours; but they maintained their ſtation in the mountains, under the name of Taurians, or mountaineers. From them the whole peninſula obtained the appellation Taurica (Tavrika). In the former half of the ſixth century Greeks began to ſettle here. The Mileſians built Pantikapæum or Boſphorus *, and Theodoſia †; the pontic Heraclians and the Delians, Kherſon. The commerce which the Greeks from that time forward here carried on was uncommonly flouriſhing, and contributed not a little to enlarge their geography.

In the fifth century, the Archæanaktides, a race which originated from Mytilene, founded a monarchy in Boſphorus. About a hundred years afterwards, the Skythians were for the moſt part exterminated by the Sarmates; upon which, by inſenſible degrees, the Taurians extended their dominion over nearly the whole peninſula. They preſſed ſo hard upon the empire of Boſphorus and the free ſtate of Kherſon, that theſe ſubmitted themſelves to the great Mithri-

* In the tartarian, Kertſch; in ruſs, Vosfor.

† In tartarian, Keffa; ruſs, Feodoſia.

dates of Pontus in 112, who alſo ſubjugated the Taurians, and conſequently governed the whole Krimea.

About the beginning of the chriſtian æra, the Alanes penetrated into the peninſula, forced the boſphorian kings to pay them tribute, and exterminated the Taurians. — The ſovereignty of the Alanes laſted about a hundred and fifty years, and in their place came the Goths. During the period of their poſſeſſion, (in the time of Dioclefian and Conſtantine the great,) chriſtianity was diſſeminated in the Krimea. Theſe Goths were indeed ſubjected to the Hunns, in 375, but they retained their habitations in the mountains, and had their own chriſtian kings. Towards the cloſe of the fourth century the empire of Boſphorus alſo came to an end.

On the downfal of the ſovereignty of the Hunns, in 464, the Ungers came hither; who, with the Bulgarians, conquered alſo the countries between the Don and the Dnieſtr. A part of them went back again to Aſia, and the reſt were obliged to ſubmit (679) to the Khazares *, who likewiſe compelled the Goths in the mountains and the grecian cities to be tributary to them. In the year 840 the province of Kherſon

* From that time the peninſula was called Khazaria.

was

was marked out by the emperor Theophilus, which compriſed all the grecian cities and places in the Krim and the Kuban; for though theſe were equally tributary to the Khazares, they however acknowledged the ſupremacy of the byzantine court.

Ungers and Khazares were again (882) ſubdued by the Petſchenegers or Kanglians; who, about the middle of the eleventh century, were forced in their turn to reſign the dominion to the Komanes (Uzes or Poloftzes). This people alſo extorted a tribute from the krimean Greeks and Goths. — About this time the city Sugdaya (now Sudak) roſe into ſuch conſideration by its commerce, that all the grecian poſſeſſions in the Krim received the name of Sugdania. Till the year 1204 theſe had always acknowledged the ſovereignty of Byzantium: they were now independent.

To the Komanes at length ſucceeded the Mongoles or Tartars in the ſovereignty of this peninſula; and thenceforward (1237) the Krim formed a province of the kaptſchakian empire. Now detached tartarian princes, to whom the name of Ulutz-beys were given, roamed about the plain with their hordes. The Greeks and Goths paid tribute to the Mongoles, as they had before done to the Komanes; alſo ſeveral Tſcher-

kaſſians ſettled here. From the city of Krim, to which the Mongoles carried on a great trade, the whole peninſula obtained the name by which it was uſually called till the year 1783.

While the Latins were maſters of Conſtantinople, they, eſpecially the Venetians, proſecuted a very important commerce to the Krim and to Taman (Matriga); but in later times the Genoeſe appropriated it excluſively to themſelves, and in the bloody wars that broke out in conſequence, they gained the ſuperiority at various times. By permiſſion of the Mongoles, they rebuilt Keffa, and made that city the centre of their commerce: they conquered Soldaya (Sudak) and Cembalo (Baluklava); they paid indeed duties and impoſts to the Mongoles, when they were in full force, but when the hordes were diſturbed by inteſtine commotions, they even bid them defiance, and the princes of the krimean plains were ordinarily elected and depoſed at the diſcretion of the Genoeſe. About this time two branches of the indian commerce found their way to theſe regions: the one over the Amoor, the Caſpian, and through Aſtrakhan to Tana; the other by the way of Bagdat and Tauris, to Trebizond and Sevaſtopolis. Tana was poſſeſſed at the ſame time by the Genoeſe and the Venetians, but under mongolian ſovereignty.

On

On the fall of the ſtate of Kaptſchak, the Krim was formed into a peculiar khanate, the founder whereof was Hadſchy-Gheray, about 1441. From that period the Tartars dated their dominion, though the khans were ſtill deſcendants from the houſe of Tſchinghis-khan. The proper founder of the tartar-krimean ſtate, Mengly-Gheray, who, in the fifteenth century, through the aſſiſtance of the Oſmans, had come to the complete ſovereignty of the peninſula *, ſubmitted

* Mengly-Gheray was a deſcendant of the Tſchinghiſes; and, while yet very young, was taken priſoner in an engagement by the Genoeſe, who cauſed him to be well-educated, and in all reſpects treated like a prince. On being driven to extremities by the Tartars, they ſent the young Mengly, with ſome of the principal Genoeſes, to Conſtantinople, for the purpoſe of moving Mohammed II. to take them under his protection. The ſultan ſhewed great affection to Mengly; and, when the Tartars by their diſſenſions had ruined the interior commerce of the country, they petitioned Mohammed to give them a khan of their own, he appointed this young prince to that ſtation, who, on his part, acknowledged the paramount ſupremacy of the porte. This ſtate of dependence not proving agreeable to the Tartars, Mengly, not long after his arrival in the Krim, was obliged to apply for auxiliary troops of the Turks, with which he not only (1475) reduced the Tartars to obedience, but even annihilated the genoeſe authority in the peninſula. But when Mengly had augmented the forces of his ſtate by theſe conqueſts and by the addition of many tartarian colonies, and was

ſubmitted himſelf to the porte as its vaſſal, who ſoon arrogated the right of impoſing ſea-tolls on their trade, to keep forts in their country, and at length even to ſet up and to depoſe their khans at pleaſure. Under this auſtere deſpotiſm the Krim ſubſiſted till the year 1774, when Catharine II., by the peace of Kutſchuk-Kainardgi, procured the independence of the khan, and obtained for the ruſſian empire ſome ſtrong-places on the frontiers, as a ſafeguard againſt the predatory incurſions of the Tartars. A few years afterwards (1783) the whole peninſula, as is well-known came to Ruſſia; and, at preſent, together with the eaſtern Nogay, or the krimean ſteppe, forms a government, under the name of the Tauridan province.

The Krim had but few tartar inhabitants, when Mengly-Gheray was the ruler of it. On occaſion of the war which he carried on with his relative branches on the Volga, he brought many thouſand Nogays with him to the Krim, whom he obliged to ſettle there. The great population of this peninſula, to which belong

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was thinking to withdraw himſelf from the ſupremacy of the porte, the Turks ſent garriſons into the principal towns, and reduced the khan to a dependence, which afterwards, and particularly from the year 1584, grew into a complete ſubjection.

Arme-

Armenians, Greeks, Turks, Jews, &c. beſides Tartars, had already much declined, during the troubles, under the laſt khan. The Armenians and Greeks ſubmitted themſelves (1779) for the moſt part voluntarily to the ruſſian empire, and retired to the former government of Azof or what at preſent is that of Ekatarinoſlaf; and the Tartars fled in ſuch great numbers to Avchaſia and to the Ottomans, that credible eye-witneſſes think they cannot rate the population of the Krim in the year 1782 higher than at 50,000 men.

We now proceed to the SIBERIAN TARTARS, who form, as it were, the ſecond line of the proper Tartars in Ruſſia. Siberia contains ſo great a multitude of tartarian colonies, and many of them appear to have been ſo long naturalized in the country, that, from the perplexity and the contradictions that prevail in the accounts of them, we are not capable of tracing out a general and connected hiſtory of theſe tribes. We will, therefore, take under this head the events of the mongole-tartarian ſtate in Siberia, and lay them as a ground-work; after which we will endeavour to arrange by this clue ſuch hiſtorical fragments as may ſerve to throw a light on ſeveral diſtinct nations.

The

The mongole-tartarian ſtate in Siberia, or the khanate of Turan, was, as has already been curſorily mentioned, founded about the middle of the thirteenth century by Scheibany, a brother, or kinſman, of Baaty, and took its origin in the region of the Aral-mountains and on the river Yaik (now Ural), where this khan had inherited poſſeſſions from Baaty, which he preſently enlarged by conqueſts in Siberia to a very conſiderable territory. The firſt reſidence of the tartar-ſiberian princes was on the river Tura, on the ſpot where the preſent Tiumen ſtands *, and was called, in honour of the grand-khan, Tſchinghidin: afterwards this city was razed, and the khans took their ſeat, perhaps for fear of the attacks of the Kazanians, on the eaſtern ſhore of the Irtyſh, where they built the city Iſker, which afterwards got the name of Sibir, and lies in the vicinage of the preſent Tobolſk. The laſt khan of Turan, previous to the ruſſian conqueſt of Siberia, was Kutſchum, a Tſchinghiſe of the kaptſchak lineage, who went from the Kaſatſchia-Orda to Siberia, and ſubjected

* Tiumen is a circle-town in the tobolſkoi diſtrict of the government of Tobolſk, 254 verſts from that chief city. The Tartars at Tiumen ſtill call this town Tſchinghis, or Tſchinghi-Tura.

this

this ſtate to him, either with the free will of the inhabitants, or by the right of the conqueror. This prince was the firſt who eſtabliſhed the mohammedan religion in Siberia; for although this faith had found admiſſion much earlier among the Tartars, yet there was a neceſſity for all the perſuaſives of enthuſiaſm and even the force of arms to render its adoption more general. The arrival of the Ruſſians interrupted theſe converſions ere they could be rendered complete; and the remoter provinces of the khanate were ſtill imbued with paganiſm.

The circuit of the empire, of which Kutſchum was ſovereign, cannot indeed be accurately ſtated; but certain it is, that the Tartars on the Irtyſh and the Tobol and in the ſteppe Baraba, as well as the Oſtiaks and Vogules in their neighbourhood, are become his ſubjects. The Tartars on the Tura and the Iſet have, according to ſome accounts, formed a peculiar ſtate independent of Kutſchum, whoſe khan had his ſeat at Tiumen. — Of the diſcovery and conqueſt of this country by the Ruſſians mention has already been made in ſeveral places of this ſection*, we ſhall therefore here paſs it over in ſilence, and proceed at once to notice the ſeve-

* See the articles, Ruſſians, Siberian-kozaks, and Mongoles.

ral

ral branches of which the ſiberian Tartars of the preſent day conſiſt.

Although the generality of theſe colonies came not till the thirteenth century, on the aggrandizement of the mongole-tartarian territory, yet there are alſo ſome ſtems which ſeem to have been long before that epocha in poſſeſſion of ſeveral diſtricts of Siberia. If we may judge from their oral traditions, they eſteem themſelves in ſome meaſure the original inhabitants of that country; but as there is a total failure of hiſtorical accounts on this head, and the generality of the tartarian ſtems have ſo much intermingled with the other ſiberian nations, that their deſcent is ſcarcely to be aſcertained, nothing remains for us to do but to follow the political diſtribution which is adopted in the records of the ruſſian chancery, which diſtinguiſh the ſiberian Tartars into various ſtems according to the diſtricts which they inhabit. As theſe now, both in their phyſical and moral individuality, differ greatly from each other, it will be neceſſary to mention the moſt remarkable of them by name.

Among theſe are the TURALINZES, one of the firſt colonies who conſtructed, for themſelves, permanent habitations, when the Tartars ſubjugated Siberia in the thirteenth century; thence

thence alſo their name, (from Tura, in the tartar language, a town,) which ſignifies the ſame with ſettlers. Ever ſince their arrival they have inhabited the region on both ſides of the river, which from them is denominated the Tura, between the Tavda and the Iſet, in the ekatarinenburg and tobolſkoi diſtricts of the governments of Perme and Tobolſk. Their oldeſt fixed ſeat was the forementioned city Tſchinghidin; but when Yermak made the conqueſt of theſe parts, the khan Yepanſa reſided higher up the Tura in a city, which, after their reſtoration by the Ruſſians, was named Turinſk, and bears this name at preſent, though it is alſo called by the Tartars Yepantſchina.

The TOBOLSKIAN TARTARS have their appellation from the river Tobol, on which they dwell, and are the deſcendants of the inhabitants of Iſker or Sibir, their antient capital, which being reduced to a heap of rubbiſh after Yermak's conqueſt, they abandoned, and inſtead of it the Ruſſians afterwards built Tobolſk. They muſt not be confounded with the tartar inhabitants of Tobolſk, who are a bukharian colony, as we ſhall ſee farther on. Their number amounts to upwards of 4000 males.

The TOMSKIAN TARTARS dwell on both ſides of the river Tom, above and below the city of Tomſk;

Tomſk; but in the town itſelf is a colony of Bukharians. According to the cenſus of 1760 they were only taxed at 430 males. — The KRASNOYARSKIAN and KUSNETZKIAN TARTARS are remains of antient ſtems, who are every where much alike, and alſo bear a great reſemblance with the mongolian tribes, which is eaſily explained from the cloſe intercourſe in which theſe races lived during their oppreſſion by the Soongares. — The TARTARS OF THE OBY conſiſt of 16 voloſts, of which 12 have permanent habitations on the Oby, and the others nomadiſe. In the year 1766 the former counted 1115, and the latter 500 males. — The TSCHULYMSKIAN TARTARS dwelt formerly between the Oby and the Yeniſſey, but, conſtantly preſſed by the Soongares and Kirghiſes, not always in the ſame diſtrict. Since they have enjoyed protection and repoſe under the ruſſian ſovereignty, they inhabit the whole region along the river Tſchulym, and now amount to between 5 and 6000 bows. — The BARABINZES inhabit the country between the Oby and the Irtyſh, which is called the Baraba, or the barabinzian ſteppe; and, as far as their tradition goes, they are the proper owners of it. At the conqueſt of Siberia by the Ruſſians, they were under Kutſchum-khan, and in the year 1595 came into

ſubjection to Ruſſia. Since that time they have been often plundered on the incurſions of the Soongares and Kirghiſes, and even compelled by the former to pay them a yearly tribute; but ſince the ſiberian frontier-line has been eſtabliſhed, they have enjoyed complete tranquillity. They are about 5000 bows in number. — The KATSCHINTZES, on the left ſhore of the Yeniſſey, are taxed at the rate of about 1000 bows, and have poſſeſſed their territory longer than the hiſtory of that country reaches. — The KISTIM and TULIBERT TARTARS, on the left bank of the Tom, form two voloſts, and approach the Teleutes. — The BIRIUSSES, with the Katſchintzes, come nearer to the proper Tartars, and conſiſt of about 170 bows. — The ABINTZES, in the ſuperior region of the Tom, reckon themſelves at ſome hundred bows, and likewiſe reſemble the Teleutes. — The SAYANE TARTARS name themſelves Sœyœn, from the well-known ſayane mountains, in which they nomadiſe on the left ſhore of the Yeniſſey. They pay taxes for 150 bows. — The BELTIRS wander with the Sayanes and Biriuſſes on the Abakan, and may be eſtimated at about 150 bows. — The VERCHOTOMSKIAN TARTARS conſtitute a peculiar ſtem, which numbers only about 200 bows. They nomadiſe about the

ſources of the Tom, and reſemble the Abintzes. — Beſides theſe there are yet ſeveral inſignificant ſtems, as the MELESSIAN, the ARALIAN, the UDINSKIAN, the YARINSKIAN TARTARS, and others. The tribes before-mentioned are, however, in general much more numerous than we have here ſtated their population to be, as the enumerations in theſe extenſive deſerts, and from their rambling way of life, are attended with great difficulties. All the regions we have noticed are in the governments of Tobolſk and Kolhyvan, and partly in the eaſtern half of that of Perme, beyond the Ural-mountains, which, therefore, are to be regarded as the peculiar home-ſeat of the ſiberian Tartars.

2. We come now to the ſecond main branch of the Tartars, the MANKATS or NOGAYANS. Of this great and numerous people we have no authentic and connected hiſtory. According to the arabic and grecian writers it owes its origin to a mongole chieftain, named Nogay, who, towards the termination of the thirteenth century, was ſent with a ſtrong body of troops by a khan of Kaptſchak to conquer the countries lying beyond the Euxine, and who actually ſubjected the regions from the Don to the Danube, but afterwards ſhook off the ſovereignty of the khans of Kaptſchak, and became the founder of

an empire, which, however, presently fell to pieces under his successors. Notwithstanding the annihilation of this state, the name of its founder continued to live in the nation which he had governed; and it is very probable that the Nogayans spread themselves from the Volga to the Ural, and thence again as far as the Irtysh *, and were not driven out of these regions by the Kalmuks till the æra of the russian sovereignty. — They now inhabit the steppes on the north side of the caucasean mountains and the Euxine quite to the other side of the Danube, and consist of several larger and smaller stems, which at times are known to change their place of abode, and even their names. The Nogayans subject to Russia are partly in what was formerly called the eastern Nogay or the krimean steppe, partly in the Kuban, and partly dispersed about the Volga and in other regions of the empire.

The EASTERN NOGAY forms the northern larger half of the province of Taurida, denominated by the Russians the krimean steppe. It is about twice as large as the peninsula of the Krim, and was formerly much larger; but in

* In the territory of the town of Ufa is still in being what is called the Nogay-road; and on the Irtysh is a region which bears the name of the Nogayan steppe.

the year 1739, by the peace of Belgrade, more than the half of it came under the ruſſian ſceptre, which part belongs at preſent to the government of Ekatarinoſlaf. The remainder, which likewiſe had formed a part of the ſtates of the krimean khans, fell to Ruſſia on her taking poſſeſſion of the Krim in 1783; and this now conſtitutes the circles Melitopol and Dneprovſk in the province of Taurida.

The eaſtern Nogay has had almoſt always the ſame fortunes and been inhabited from the ſame people with the Krim. Kimmerians, Skythians, Sarmates, Alanes, Goths, Hunns, Ungres, and Bulgarians, Petſchenegrans, Komanes, and laſtly the Tartars, have ſucceſſively inhabited this country. At length thoſe Tartars ſettled here, who are called Nogayans, and ſtill at this moment form a conſiderable part of its population. — Till the year 1770 the ſtems of Yediſchkul, Dſhembuluk, and Kurgœs reſided here. The horde Dſhembuluk had formerly their abode on the Dſhem (the river Yemba) in the kirghiſian ſteppe, where they were ſubjugated by a khan of the Torgots. Still at the commencement of the preſent century free Nogayans wandered in this region; the famous kalmuk khan Ayuka drove them, however, farther weſtward acroſs the river Ural and the Volga, upon which Peter

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the great conveyed them to their brother-races on the rivers Kuma and Kuban, excepting the chundurovian-nogayan horde, whom he declared to be ſubjects of the Kalmuks, and ſent them to them. During the troubles that aroſe upon khan Ayuka's death among the Kalmuks, the Nogayans in their neighbourhood ſuffered ſo much, that the hordes Dſhembuluk and Yedi-ſan thought it expedient to withdraw in 1715, to the number of more than 10,000 families, to the Kuban, and to put themſelves under the protection of the porte. Hence the greater part of them were tranſplanted into the eaſtern Nogay, whither, a few years after, they were followed by the reſt of the hordes. During the war before the laſt between Ruſſia and the Porte, in 1770, the two hordes betook themſelves to the Kuban, under the ruſſian ſovereignty, which example the Yediſchkul and Akermenian or Belgorodian horde ſoon followed. By the peace of Kutſchuk-Kainardgi they were all made over to the krimean khan, and on the taking poſſeſſion of his ſtates in the year 1783 they came back again to the ruſſian empire.

The ſecond and at preſent the only main-ſeat of the Nogayans is the Kuban. This country too has experienced various and remarkable cir-

cumſtances. As far back as we can with any certainty recur to hiſtory, there dwelt along the coaſts of the ſea of Azof, from the Don to the northernmoſt exit of the river Kuban, a nation, or rather a mixture of people, which were wont to be compriſed under the name of Sarmates; at the other mouths of the Kuban, and about the Euxine, dwelt nations of kimmerian or thracian deſcent. Theſe coaſts were very early viſited by Phœnicians and Kavians, afterwards even by the Greeks. In the former half of the ſixth century, before the chriſtian æra, Ionians and Æolians ſettled at the mouths of the Don and the Kuban, and there built trading towns and cities, which in a ſhort time flouriſhed and became wealthy. The towns on the Kuban fell at the ſame time with Pantikapæum, under the dominion of the Archæanaktides; two-and-forty years afterwards Spartacus became their ruler; and under his ſucceſſors the boſphorian kings, they lived till the time of the great Mithridates.

After the Sarmates were for the moſt part gone to Europe, five years before Alexander, we find the Yazamates as the inhabitants of this entire tract of country. After them appear other nations, from thoſe ſwarms of people who were called Alanes, and of whom remains are

ſtill

ſtill preſerved in the Tſcherkeſſians, the Chechians, and Avchaſes. — About the year 112, before the birth of Chriſt, the grecian cities fell under the power of the great Mithridates; and ſome of his ſucceſſors were ſo puiſſant, that they reduced all the inferior ſtems, about the coaſts of the ſea of Azof as far as to the Don, to their obedience. On the incurſion of the Hunns, in 375, many of the Alanes were driven to Europe, the poſſeſſions of thoſe who remained behind contracted, and the boſphorian empire demoliſhed. Ninety years afterwards came the Ungres and Bulgares in the place of the Hunns; they proceeded to conquer the Krim and all the country between the Don and the Dnieſtr. In the year 679, however, the Chazares ſubjugated all the nations of the coaſts, from the roads of Kaffa as far as the Don, and extended their conqueſts into Europe. The empire which they here founded laſted 336 years, and was for a long time the mightieſt and moſt flouriſhing ſtate in theſe eaſtern regions. By the inroads of the Petſchenegrans, and the flight of the Ungres (882), the Chazares loſt all their european poſſeſſions: they retained nothing but the country between the Kuban and the Don, and the tract on the ſouthern and eaſtern ſhore of the laſt-mentioned river. This latter region was raviſhed

from them (965) by the Ruſſians combined with the byzantine Greeks, made themſelves maſters of the countries bordering on the ſea of Azof (1015), completely overturned the chazarian ſtate, and erected a diſtinct principality on the iſle of Taman, to which both the Chazares and the Ziches (ruſs, Yaſy) were for a long time tributary *.

It appears, that towards the end of the eleventh century, while Ruſſia was torn by inteſtine broils, the principality of Taman was loſt to that empire. The Komanes or Polovtzes took poſſeſſion of the north-eaſtern part of the Kuban, as did the Ziches and other tſcherkeſſian ſtems of the ſouthern and weſtern diſtricts. At length (1221) the Mongoles made their firſt attack. The Komanes were either maſſacred, or expelled, or ſubdued by theſe perpetual diſ-

* This is the famous principality of Tmutarakan, mentioned by the ruſſian annaliſts from the latter half of the tenth century to the year 1127, and concerning the ſituation whereof ſo many and ſuch various conjectures have been formed. This matter is now reduced to certainty by the inſcription on a marble diſcovered a few years ſince, that this principality was on the iſland of Taman, and the capital of it on the ſpot where the antient Phanagoria ſtood. See the privy-counſellor Muſſin-Puſchkin's hiſtorical diſquiſition on the ſituation of the old ruſſian principality of Tmutarakan in Storch's materials, &c. p. 1—50.

turbers of the world: but the Ziches fought bravely for their liberty, and could not be made to ſubmit till the year 1277, when they were overpowered by Mangu-Timur-khan and the famous Nogay. Nevertheleſs their ſubmiſſion was always very doubtful and conditional; and they remained, in fact, independent in their woody and mountainous regions. The Ottomans indeed (1484) conquered the cities and forts of Taman, Temryuk, and Atſchuk (Atſchuyef); but they gained thereby no ſovereignty over the Tſcherkeſſians. A Sandſchak-paſha was till the war of 1770 with Ruſſia, their viceroy in theſe towns, where they ſhared the moiety of the impoſts with the khan of the Krimea. At the peace of 1774, the ſultan of the Ottomans relinquiſhed his poſſeſſions in theſe parts, but, contrary to treaty, held Taman and Temryuk in a ſtate of ſiege, till the krimean khan, by the aid of the Ruſſians, drove the ottoman garriſons out of them. By the treaty of the year 1783 Ruſſia obtained, together with the Krimea and the eaſtern Nogay, alſo the northern part of the Kuban as far as the promontory of Caucaſus, from which that tract of country with the whole government to which it belongs, has received its name.

At

At the commencement of the ottoman period the krimean khan had not as yet the ſovereignty of the Kuban, the khan of Aſtrakhan exacting homage as the paramount lord of that diſtrict. Though, properly ſpeaking, it was governed by petty tſcherkaſſian princes, who were dependent on no one. Mohammed Gheray was the firſt krimean khan who attempted to enlarge his authority here; his ſucceſſors proſecuted the war with the Tſcherkaſſians, and were conſtantly gaining ground upon them. They tranſplanted hither numerous ſwarms of aſtrakhan Nogays, who had either been carried off by them in war, or who had voluntarily (eſpecially at and after the demolition of the aſtrakhan ſtate) quitted the Volga, and put themſelves under the protection of the krimean khan.

The KUBANIAN NOGAYS, called alſo the little or black Nogays (Kara Nogay), are diſtributed into various hordes and ſtems, whereof the Kaſay-aul and the Naurus-aul are the moſt remarkable, and together compoſe about 10,000 families. Beſides theſe, here have been for a long time a part of the yediſchkulian and the dſhembulukian hordes; as alſo a ſtem which bears the name of Kiptſchak. In the year 1770 came

came hither, as has been already mentioned, the hordes Budſhak (Akkermen), Yediſan, Yediſchkul, and Dſhembuluk, from the other ſide of the Don, and were ſtill here in 1783, when the Ruſſians took poſſeſſion of the Kuban. The ſtrength of theſe four ſtems is eſtimated at 70,000 bows, and from the teſtimony of an author, who made inquiries on the ſpot, the population of all the eaſtern and kubanian Nogays, a few years ago, amounted to upwards of 500,000 families: but this number is probably exaggerated.

Beſides theſe, who are but lately come under the ruſſian ſovereignty, there are, in various parts of the empire, other remains and colonies of this nation of Nogays. Among which are the ASTRAKHAN TARTARS, who, for the moſt part, compoſe the main ſtem of the preſent Nogays, and of whom we ſpoke more circumſtantially above. — The CHUNDUROVIAN Nogays form a conſiderable horde, nomadiſing on the Achtuba, an arm of the Volga, and numbers about 1000 yurts. It has already been related in another place*, that a ſtrong cohort of Nogays, who were about to ſpread acroſs the river Ural, were made ſubject to Ayuka, khan of Torgot. Ayuka's ſucceſſor, Donduk Ombo, reduced

* See the article Œlœt, or Kalmuks.

likewiſe

likewiſe ſeveral thouſand tents of chundurovian Tartars under the dominion of the volgaic horde. When the Torgot in 1770 fled into the Soongarèy, the Chundurovians made themſelves free, by ſecuring themſelves on the iſlands of the Volga under the fort of Kraſnoyarſk. — Beſides theſe, there are ſeveral bodies of Nogays diſperſed among the other Tartars of the empire; accordingly the whole number of Nogays in ſubjection to the ruſſian empire is very conſiderable.

3. The MESCHTSCHERIÆKS, who form an old diſtinct tartarian ſtem, were already known under that name to Neſtor. In the fourteenth century they had their ſeat in the modern government of Niſhney-Novgorod; they afterwards ſettled in the country of the Baſchkirs, for which they were obliged to pay a ground-rent. On account of their fidelity during ſeveral rebellions of the Baſchkirs, they were freed from this tax, and now dwell among the Baſchkirs and Tartars in the orenburg diſtrict of the government of Ufa, where they amount to about 2000 families.

4. The BASCHKIRS call themſelves Baſchkurt, and derive their origin partly from the Nogayans, and partly from the Bolgarians. Probably they are Nogayans, whom the Bolgarians adopted among them: their country at leaſt is a part of the

the antient Bolgaria. They formerly roamed about the ſouthern Siberia under the conduct of their own princes; to avoid the moleſtations of the ſiberian khans they ſettled in their preſent poſſeſſions, ſpread themſelves about the rivers Volga and Ural, and were ſubject to the kazanian khanate. On the overthrow of that ſtate by Ivan II. they voluntarily took refuge under the ruſſian ſceptre; they afterwards however frequently revolted againſt the government, whereby their proſperity, as well as their population, have been conſiderably diminiſhed. In the year 1770 they conſiſted of 27,000 families, having their homeſtead in the governments of Ufa and Perme.

5. The KIRGHISES, or Kirghis-Kaizaki, call themſelves Sara-Kaizaki (ſteppe-kozaks), and likewiſe Kirghiſes, probably from the founder of their horde. By their traditions they are originally Nogays; Abulgaſi affirms them to be deſcendants of the primitive Mongoles, who at firſt dwelt about the river Ikran in the vicinity of the chineſe wall, and at the general migration and tranſplantation of the mongolian races, travelled into more weſtern regions. But the antient hiſtory of this people is involved in the greater obſcurity and doubt, as, till the ruſſian conqueſt of Siberia, nothing was known of them in Europe.

Europe. At the time of that conqueſt the Kirghiſes nomadiſed at the ſuperior Yeniſſey, about the Yuſs, the Abakan, &c. and in the year 1606, they were ſubjected to the ruſſian empire at the ſame time with the Barabinzes. From that period, by their puſillanimity, their faithleſſneſs, their frequent rebellions, and by the ſubjugation of correlative nations, they have got the character of an extremely turbulent and dangerous people. The revolutions which have thereby been produced in their political condition, induced them to remove from the Yeniſſey to the Oby, and gradually farther to the weſt and the ſouth. They at preſent inhabit the prodigious deſert between the Ural and the Irtyſh, denominated by the Ruſſians the Kirghiſian ſteppe, and bordering weſtward on the Caſpian and the government of Caucaſus, northwards on the parts about the Ufa and the Tobol, and eaſtwards on the government of Kolhyvan.

As long as the Kirghiſes have been known to other nations, they have always been divided into three hordes, the great, the middle, and the little hordes: the firſt, from its intrepidity and the protection afforded them by the inacceſſible indian mountains, is ſtill independent, notwithſtanding the great efforts made by their ſouthern neighbours the Soongarians, to ſubjugate

gate them. The middle and the little hordes have acknowledged the ruſſian ſovereignty ever ſince the year 1731, but have always ſhewed themſelves as unfaithful allies and a very piratical people; for which reaſon lines of ſmall forts have been conſtructed along the frontier rivers. Each of theſe two hordes are eſtimated at 30,000 kabitkies or families; but they are probably much ſtronger.

6. The TELEUTES or Telengutes, are thought to have their name from the lake Telengul in the Altay-mountains; they are denominated alſo by the Ruſſians the white Kalmuks, becauſe they formerly lived among the Soongarians. Abulgaſi reckons them among the mongolian races: as their ſpeech however is manifeſtly a corrupt tartarian, their origin may more conſiſtently be derived from that nation. In the year 1609 they did homage for the firſt time to the ruſſian empire; but not till towards the middle of the laſt century when ſome ſtems of them removed higher up the Tom, where they became properly ſubjects of Ruſſia: the greater part, however, remained with the Kalmuks. The former dwell partly in the tomſkoi diſtrict of the tobolſkian, partly in the kuſnetſkian circle of the government of Kolhyvan, and their number is ſo ſmall, that they only reckon about 500 males.

7. The

7. The YAKUTES, who denominate themſelves Socha, muſt formerly have been one people with the Tartars, if we may judge from their language and bodily form. Their antient homeſtead extended from the Sayane-mountains as far as the Angara and the Lena. Perſecuted by the Buræts and Mongoles, they removed down the Lena to their preſent rude and inclement diſtricts, where they are found in the government of Irkutſk on both ſides of that river quite to the Frozen-ocean. In the year 1620 they ſubmitted to the ruſſian conquerors, and at the middle of the preſent century they numbered upwards of 40,000 bows; but ſince that time they are conſiderably increaſed.

8. In addition to all the tartarian nations we have hitherto mentioned, there are ſtill conſiderable colonies formed of tartarian tribes in various parts of the ruſſian empire. The unbounded religious toleration, the powerful protection and the prudent policy of the ruſſian government, have long rendered that country a refuge not only for ſuch as are fond of change, but to all in general of the injured and oppreſſed among the neighbouring nations. The tartar nations, like all the orientals, being more governed by a roaming diſpoſition, than the Europeans, frequently expoſed to ill-uſage from the caprice of their

their arbitrary lords and the inroads of their neighbours, find in Ruſſia not only all the benefits of civil ſociety in a far higher degree, but alſo numerous ſettlements of their collateral races domeſticated there, with whom they are intimately connected by language, manners, and religion. All theſe motives in conjunction are ſo alluring to the ſurrounding tartarian nations, that the numbers of them who migrate annually to Ruſſia may be conſidered as a conſiderable ſource of population. Beſides the ſingle arrivals which take place with all the tartar ſtems in the empire, incorporate themſelves with them, and therefore loſe their diſtinctions among them, there are, particularly in Siberia and in the governments of Ufa, Kazan, and Caucaſus, whole colonies, more or leſs conſiderable, of theſe fugitives, who, like the Tepteres mentioned among the finniſh races, in ſome ſort form new ſtems. Thus, for example, the fort Nagaibak, on the Ik, (a river of the Kama,) and many frontier places of Siberia, Orenburg, and Aſtrakhan, contain ſuch mingled bodies of Tartars. — Of the nogaik hordes, even before their entire ſubjection, conſiderable ſtems ſettled ſingly among the Tartars of Kazan, Ufa, and Orenburg, but eſpecially among the Baſchkirs. — In Aſtrakhan, Kiſliar, Moſdok, and in general about the

Terek, are numerous bodies of the caucaſean nations, particularly of ſuch as are not under the ruſſian protection. As we ſhall ſpeak of theſe in the ſequel, we paſs them by at preſent, in order to caſt an eye upon the ſtill independent tartar tribes, of whom conſiderable colonies are found in the ruſſian empire. To theſe principally belong the Bukharians, Chivayans, Taſchkentians, Turkoſtans, Aralians, Truchmenians, and Karakalpaks.

The LESSER BUKHARIA lies, as every one knows, contiguous to the Caſpian and the lake Aral in the eaſt, and is ſurrounded by Perſia, the northern India, and ſeveral petty tartarian ſtates. The capital Bukhara is by the ſtrait road ſcarce thirty days journey (about 1500 verſts) from Orenburg. — The Bukharians affirm themſelves to be unmixed deſcendants of the Uzes and the modern Turkomans who ſettled here at the time of the military campaigns in the weſt. Their form of government is monarchical; but the khan is elected from the princely family, his power is limited, and he may be depoſed from his dignity, though this caſe ſeldom happens.

The ruſſian empire has from time immemorial poſſeſſed very conſiderable COLONIES OF BUKHARIANS in Siberia. The tartarian ſuburbs or

ſlobodes at Tobolſk, Tara, and Tomſk, are entirely, and thoſe of Turinſk and Tiumen, for the moſt part, inhabited by Bukharians; there are alſo many of them in the neighbourhood of thoſe cities, where they live either in particular villages or among the Tartars. In the Baſchkirèy are two bukharian voloſts; and, beſides them a multitude of ſmaller ſettlements in the government of Ufa, in Aſtrakhan, and other places. All theſe colonies taken in the aggregate compoſe greatly above 20,000 males. The civil eſtabliſhments have moſtly ariſen from the trading caravans, and ſtill continue to receive ſome augmentation by the merchants who ſtay behind. The Bukharians in the villages, and thoſe diſperſed among the Tartars, are almoſt all fugitives who have eſcaped from kirghiſian bondage.

The CHIVAYANS or Chivinſes, who are likewiſe called Charaſians, dwelt ſome time ago about the lower parts of the river Ural. Their preſent country lies on the eaſt ſide of the lake Aral, and borders on Perſia, the leſſer Bukharia, and other tartarian ſtates. The diſtance of their capital, Chiva, from Orenburg, is computed at only 12 or 15 days journey (6 or 700 verſts). Their political conſtitution is ſimilar to that of the Bukharians. — TURKOSTAN, or Turkeſtan, has long ceaſed to be the moſt flouriſhing and

powerful ſtate of theſe regions. It conſiſts ſolely at preſent of the moderate town of that name, which was lately ſubjected to the middle kirghiſian horde. — TASCHKENT is a ſomewhat larger ſtate, and has a khan of its own, who, as with the Chivayans, is elected from the kirghiſian princely races, and ſometimes acknowledges the patronage of the Kirghiſes, and ſometimes the ſovereignty of the Soongarians. Both nations are only diſtinguiſhed from the Bukharians and Chivinſes by their greater poverty. The colonies, in the ruſſian empire, of theſe three tribes, are attached either to the Bukharians or to the other Tartars; their number is by no means great, and they have ſettled here either as merchants or as eſcaped kirghiſian captives.

The ARALIANS inhabit the coaſts and iſlands of the lake Aral. They are an uſbekian race, chooſing its independent khans out of the kirghiſian princely family, and not ſtronger than about 5000 bows. They live not in towns, but, however, in permanent villages, and are in all reſpects very like the Chivinſes. They have no opportunity for trade; therefore they come to Ruſſia on no other occaſions than when any of them are happy enough to eſcape from the kirghiſian ſlavery. In ſuch caſes they ſettle in the firſt tartarian colony they come to.

The

The parent-ſtock of the TRUCHMENIANS, or the antient Turkomans, who are called by the Ruſſians terekmenian tartars, ſtill nomadiſe on the eaſtern coaſts of the Caſpian, where their territory extends as far as the lake Aral and Perſia. The Truchmenians, of whom we are now to ſpeak, poſſeſs on the weſtern ſide of the Caſpian that part of the caucaſean mountains which ſtretches from that ſea as far as the province Kakhetty of the georgian ſtate. The generality of the diſtricts have their own common princes; others form particular ſtates, and ſome are under foreign ſovereignty.

In the former half of the preſent century a part of theſe hordes fell under the yoke of the torgotan prince Ayuka, and on that occaſion many truchmenian families withdrew to the Tartars of Orenburg, Ufa, and Aſtrakhan. In the year 1770, when the before-mentioned flight of the Kalmuks enſued, the remainder of theſe people, who had till then be under the dominion of the Kalmuks, ſet themſelves at liberty, and at preſent nomadiſe as free ſubjects of the ruſſian empire, about the mouth of the Kuma. Their number is continually increaſing by new comers, who eſcape from the Kirghiſes, and are found though ſingly among the Tartars of Orenburg and Ufa, yet to no ſmall amount.

The KARAKALPAKS, laſtly, call themſelves Kara-Kiptſchak, and inhabit the diſtricts on the Syr Darya, a conſiderable river ſpringing from the lake Aral. They divide themſelves according to their poſition, into the upper and the nether horde. — Previous to the origin of the kazanian khanate they removed to the Volga; where, preſſed by the Nogays, they marched like the Chivinſes, not as other nations did, to the weſt, but back towards the eaſt, into their preſent ſeats. About the year 1742 the nether horde, then conſiſting of 30,000 kibitkas, implored the ruſſian protection; but the Kirghiſes, againſt whom they were deſirous of ſecuring themſelves, took ſuch ſanguinary vengeance, that the greater part of them were exterminated, and the reſt were obliged to return to the upper horde. As they but ſeldom have the courage to flee from the kirghiſian captivity, their number in Ruſſia is but ſmall.

The great ſimilarity between the Bukharians, Chivinſians, Turkoſtanians, and Taſchkentians, affords room to ſuppoſe with ſome probability, that theſe nations have all had the ſame origin, and even they themſelves affirm that they are detached ſtems of the Turkoſtanians. The Aralians and the Truchmenians differ in many reſpects, and the Karakalpaks in ſtill more, from them,

them, and appear to have always been distinct hordes.

9. In conclusion to this enumeration of tartarian nations come the TRIBES OF MOUNT CAUCASUS. From the emigrations occasioned by the military expeditions of the Mongoles and Tartars, the caucasean mountains, owing to their strong, frequently inaccessible formation, together with the fertility of their soil, have preserved not only very many remains of their expelled and fugitive inhabitants, but even so many colonies of the conquerors, that no other part of the earthly globe, of the same dimensions, holds such a variety of nations. As the victorious Tartars, who as it were swallowed up the residuary tribes, and habituated them by degrees to their mode of life, their manners, and their faith, have also confounded these nations and corrupted their languages; accordingly, from the difficulty of reducing them to their primitive stocks, they are usually all comprised, the Georgians excepted, under the denomination of MOUNTAIN-TARTARS. Several of these tribes are properly russian subjects; others are vassals, and others again are protected by Persia and the Porte, or have hitherto maintained their independence. As these relations are occasionally changed according to circumstances, those who

cannot properly be classed among the inhabitants of the russian empire should not be entirely passed over; yet we will principally notice only those nations who inhabit the northern half of Caucasus.

We here find, besides the Nogayans and Truchmenians, which have already been pronounced to be genuine Tartars, three particularly numerous and nearly related tribes composing the ground-work of most of the caucasean nations: TSCHERKASSIANS, AVCHASIANS, and ZICHIANS. — In the term TSCHERKASSIANS are frequently comprised not only the two other stems just mentioned, but even several petty tribes of Caucasus, as the Tschetschengians, the Kistians, &c. The people properly bearing this name inhabit that part of Caucasus which is called the great and the little Kabardia, the islands of the lower Kuban, and the southern bank of that river. They denominate themselves Adige, that is, islanders; by the Russians they are called Tscherkessi, and by the rest of Europe Circassians.

This nation is formed of the relics of the mingled swarm usually comprehended under the appellation Alanians, and who, as we have before seen *, settled on the northern side of Cau-

* See the history of the kubanian Nogays.

casus

caſus ſoon after the Yazamates. The Tſcherkaſſians, or races collaterally related to them, as, for example, the Zichians and Avchaſians, gradually took poſſeſſion of the ſouthern regions adjacent to the Kuban. During the empire of the Chazares, the byzantine emperors appear to have exerciſed or at leaſt to have poſtulated a ſort of paramount ſupremacy over this nation, becauſe the Zichians were reckoned among their provinces. When the Ruſſians erected a ſtate upon the iſland and in the city of Taman, (Tmutarakhan,) the Zichians were tributary to them. But after the Komanes or Polovtzes had conquered the north-eaſtern part of the Kuban, they put the tſcherkaſſian ſtems in poſſeſſion of the ſouthern and weſtern, and extended themſelves afterwards continually farther and farther to the north. The Zichians in the Kuban bravely maintained their freedom againſt the attacks of the Mongoles or Tartars, but were at length in 1277 compelled to yield to the victorious arms of Mangu-Timur and Nogay. Yet the ſubjection of the Zichians and the other Tſcherkaſſians was by no means confirmed, and they remained truly independent in the upper regions of the mountains. They were even at that period ſtill in poſſeſſion of the whole eaſtern coaſt of the ſea of Azof, as far as the Don.

They

They made themſelves maſters of the city of Kertſch in the Krimea, made frequent incurſions into that peninſula and into other european countries, formed the baſis of the then riſing caucaſean tribes and founded in Ægypt a famous dynaſty. At the end of the fourteenth century the Zichians ſuffered much by the furious victories of the great Timur, who deſtroyed their habitations and particularly the city Kuban: they recovered, however, from theſe diſaſters, and afterwards aſſerted their liberty with energy and effect againſt the Ottomans, who, though they captured the cities and fortreſſes of Taman, Temryuk, and Atſchuk, were unable to ſubdue the Tſcherkaſſians. In the middle of the ſixteenth century tzar Ivan II. reduced the Tſcherkaſſians to his dominion, yet only for a ſhort period; the kubanian Tſcherkaſſians, on the other hand, maintained themſelves as well on the Don as on the Kuban. There they formed, in conjunction with the Ruſſians, the ſtate of the Don-kozaks; where they retained poſſeſſion of all the iſlands of the lower Kuban, the whole of its ſouthern banks and the regions contiguous to the Euxine. Theſe ſouthern people, however, were preſently (in the ſeventeenth century) compelled to acknowledge the paramount lordſhip of the krimean khan, although

though they were governed by beys of their own nation. The tribute which they paid to the khan conſiſted chiefly in beautiful youths and virgins for the ſupply of his harem. At the commencement of the preſent century the Tſcherkaſſians revolted againſt this humiliating tribute, and put themſelves under the protection of the Porte, without, however, becoming ſubject or tributary to it. About the middle of this century, 29 tſcherkaſſian ſtems, according to Peyſſonel's account, were under the krimean khan, who could eaſily bring into the field 100,000 men. But the leaſt of theſe ſtems were really his ſubjects; the ſouth-eaſtern lived almoſt in an entire independence, or acknowledged only with reſervation the ſovereignty of the Krim. At the peace of 1774 ſome other diſtricts of the Tſcherkaſſians were ceded to the khan; but on the ſeizure of the Kuban in the year 1783 the ſtems of this people in ſubjection to the krimean khan fell to the ruſſian empire.

Concerning the preſent ſtate and the population of the ruſſian Tſcherkaſſians but little can be authentically aſcertained, as hitherto no enumeration has been inſtituted in thoſe parts. All the diſtricts and ſtems in the Kuban are properly ruſſian ſubjects, inhabiting the iſlands of the

the lower Kuban, the whole ſouthern ſhore of that river up to its ſource, and the regions bordering on the Euxine as far as Avchaſia; conſequently by the political geography of the ruſſian empire, the circle of Phanagoria of the province of Taurida and the dwellings of the Kozaks of the Euxine. — The Tſcherkaſſians in both the great and the little Kabardia are reckoned only among the vaſſals of Ruſſia. The ſovereigns of that empire ſtyle themſelves, ſince the conqueſt of the upper Kabarda by Ivan II. lord of the kabardinian countries of the Tſcherkaſſians and mountain-princes. This is not an empty title, for notwithſtanding that this conqueſt was afterwards loſt, yet the princes of the great and little Kabardèy, ſeveral times between the years 1740 and 1750, took the oath of fealty to Ruſſia.

The AVCHASES, who are likewiſe called Abaſes or Abaſges, dwell on the ſouthern ſide of the Kuban and on the eaſtern coaſts of the Euxine. The proper Avchaſia or Abaſa is under the ottoman ſupremacy, having a prince who reſides at Anakopia. The weſtern races of the Avchaſians acknowledge the paramount ſovereignty of the krimean khan; and it is theſe who at preſent belong to the ruſſian Kuban. They moſtly live about the river Laba.

The

The ZICHIANS or Tſchekians, who are called by the Ruſſians Yaſi, are the principal inhabitants of the iſle of Taman. They formerly paid a ſmall tribute to the krimean khan, in all other reſpects are governed by their own beys. The iſle Atſchuk or Atſchuyef is likewiſe inhabited by Zichians. — Theſe two tribes, which, properly ſpeaking, are only one collateral branch of the Tſcherkaſſians, have belonged to the ruſſian empire, as inhabitants of the Kuban, ſince the year 1783.

The following tribes are as yet only vaſſals to Ruſſia. The KUMYKS: they inhabit the plain bordering on the rivers Sunſha and Terek, and in their territory are the famous hot-baths of Kiſliar. — The TSCHESCHENGIANS or Mikſcheſſians, in the eaſtern part of the great Kabardia, a nation that in time of war can raiſe 5000 horſemen. — The KISTENZIANS, in the little Kabardia, who are about equal in force to the laſt-mentioned. — The OSSETINZIANS, or Oſſes, probably ſprung from the antient Uzes or Polovtzes, in the middle part of the caucaſean mountains. They conſiſt of ſeveral ſmall ſtems who are either governed by Myrzas, or live under one common prince, who is a vaſſal of the ruſſian empire.

Of

Of the reſt of the caucaſean tribes, who are in little or no connection with Ruſſia, the following are the moſt remarkable: the LESGHIANS, who inhabit the province of Leſghiſtan in the eaſtern Caucaſus, between Kakhetty and Dagheſtan. They are divided into 27 ſtems, and are totally independent. — The TAVLINTZIANS, in the ſummits of the mountains, conſiſt of ſeveral petty tribes, and acknowledge the protection of Perſia. — The AMBARLINIANS, in the vallies formed by the mountains of Ghilan, who often change their patron-ſovereign, and are at preſent under the perſian monarch, &c.

Laſtly, the GEORGIANS or Gruſinians demand our notice here, not as Tartars, as they have kept themſelves from all commixture with that nation, but as the moſt numerous and powerful body of the mountaineers of Caucaſus, which is now for the greateſt part ſubject to the ruſſian protecting authority.

The whole country which goes under the denomination of Georgia or Gruſinia, is divided into two conſiderable chriſtian ſtates. One conſiſts of the kingdom of IMMERETIA, and the principalities of Mingrelia and Guriel, and is now governed by a common prince who bears the

the title of tzar. Each of these countries had formerly its own ruler, all acknowledging the supremacy of the grand sultan; till tzar Solomon united them under his authority and freed them from the paramount Ottomans. — The second georgian state consists of the principalities of KARDUELIA (Kartalinia) and KAKHETTY, which have long been governed by christian princes, in submission to the persian empire, but since the shock sustained by the throne of the sophys, have rendered themselves independent. Each of these two provinces formerly composed a distinct state; but at present they are both under the sole sovereignty of prince Heraclius of the kakhettian dynasty. The state of Karduelia and Kakhetty borders northwards on the Kabarda, eastwards on Dagheſtan and Schirvan, southwards on the persian Armenia, and westwards on Immeretia. The residence is Teflis. Tzar Heraclius, who is celebrated for his bravery and other great qualities, as well as by the important part which he acted during the disturbances which agitated Persia after the death of Tamas Kuli-khan, submitted in the year 1783 to the russian empire, and voluntarily sacrificed an independence which he seemed to have secured by his exploits, but the advantages whereof were richly compensated by the protection he procured by this submission.

SECTION V.

Mandſhures.

We now proceed to the Mandshure ſwarms, compriſing only two nations, the Mandshures or Mandshu, and the Tunguses. Both nations are related by deſcent, as appears from their traditions, their language, and their bodily ſtructure. The whole ſwarm together poſſeſſes extenſive countries and deſerts in eaſtern Siberia and in the northern Mongolia; the Mandſhu are even ſtill very powerful, as one of their princely families is in hereditary poſſeſſion of the throne of China. Since this people can no longer be conſidered as inhabitants of Ruſſia, without pretending to dive into their antient hiſtory, we will only touch upon thoſe of its tranſactions and events which in ſome degree concern its relations to the ruſſian empire.

Ere the Ruſſians entered Siberia, the Mandſhu were in poſſeſſion of all Dauria or the eaſtern Siberia from the Baikal quite to the mongolian mountains, together with the regions adjacent to the Amoor and its collateral rivers. They were at that time divided into ſeveral ſtems, of which the Da-urians inhabited the parts about the Selenga and the upper Amoor, the Duschares dwelt between the Argoon and the Schilka,

Schilka, the ATSCHARES about the middle Amoor, and the GHILIAKS at the mouth of the Amoor on the coaſts of the eaſtern ocean. — The daurian Mandſhu, not waiting for the arrival of the Ruſſians in their territories, retreated to the Amoor and into the empire of China. At the firſt ruſſian expedition about the middle of the ſeventeenth century, the Daurians and Dutſchares were ſubjects of the chineſe emperor, who, as a native Mandſhu, aided their flight, and afforded them protection. The Ghiliaks and Atſchares ſubſiſted then in a ſtate of independence, and accepted the ruſſian patronage without oppoſition. Their example was followed by conſiderable multitudes of the two other ſtems; but the greater part of them, by orders from the chineſe government, were tranſported from the Amoor, of which the Ruſſians had made themſelves maſters, farther towards China. Afterwards, at a peace concluded at Nertſchinſk, the whole of the Amoor with all the Mandſhures belonging to Ruſſia were ceded to China; and at preſent the mountain-ridge Stannovoi Khrebet, which ſtretches from Dauria north-eaſtward between the rivers Lena and Amoor to the eaſtern ocean, forms the boundary betwixt the two empires. In the frontier-mountains themſelves, however, are no Mandſhures, but Tunguſes, who are partly tributary

to the Chineſe, partly to Ruſſia, or live in complete independence.

The Mandſhu, particularly the daurian, while they inhabited the modern Ruſſia, were by no means an unciviliſed people. According to their written accounts and traditions, they had a conſtitution compoſed of nomadic and civil parts, and adapted to their ſituation, their mode of life, and their various exigencies. They lived peaceably among themſelves and with their neighbours, ſedulouſly attending to agriculture, graziery, and even to mining. Traces are ſtill ſeen, about the Barguſin and other rivers, of their gardens, orchards, and fields artfully laid out, and watered with artificial water-courſes. The daurian mine-works on the banks of the Argoon, ſtill famous under the name of the nertſchinſkian mines, as well as all Dauria, afford numerous proofs of the mineral labours of the antient Daurians.

That the TUNGUSES originally compoſed one people with the Mandſhu, is apparent not only from the reſemblance of features, manners, and cuſtoms, but alſo chiefly from the agreement of their languages. Indeed in the countries of the Mandſhu are ruins and other antiquities, which are not met with among the Tunguſes, but both the one and the other confeſs that they are not the works of their anceſtors. Conſequently, we

are

are to conclude that a nation lived there before theſe people, who were either driven out by them, or voluntarily withdrew; it is not improbable that theſe monuments were the work of the Niudſches, during the government of Kin.

The Tunguſes call themſelves Œvœes, probable from the ſuppoſed founder of their race; or, in the manner of moſt of the ſiberian tribes, from the word which in their language ſignifies *men*. They are called Tunguſes only by the Oſtiaks of the Yeniſſey, and the Tartars *. The extenſive deſerts, in which they have now their nomadizing ſeats, reach from weſt to eaſt from the Yeniſſey acroſs the Lena as far as the Amoor and the Eaſtern-ocean. From ſouth to north they keep between about the 53d and 65th degree of north latitude, and accordingly neither touch upon the ſoongarian borders or the coaſts of the Frozen-ocean. Being a very accommodating people, they have admitted into theſe their ſeats, Oſtiaks, Samoyedes, and particularly Yakutans. The diſtricts we have mentioned lie moſtly in the government of Irkutſk;

* This appellative may perhaps be derived from *Tonyons*, the title of their princes; this name has obtained the ſuperiority with the Ruſſians, and of courſe with the other nations of Europe. The Tunguſes are called, by the Mandſhu, Solomi (protectors) or Orontſchon (people with reindeer).

ſome few races, however, of the Tunguſes are reckoned as belonging to the government of Tobolſk.

The firſt accounts the Ruſſians obtained of theſe people was from the Oſtiaks of the Yeniſſey; and ſince the year 1607 firſt Kozaks were ſent from Mangaſey againſt the Tunguſes, to force them to ſubmiſſion. At that time many tunguſian ſtems owned the paramount ſupremacy of the Burats who had ſhortly before been expelled from Mongolia. On occaſion of the ruſſian attacks, the Tunguſes diſplayed more courage than the other Siberiaks, and not till the latter half of the laſt century were they brought to that imperfect ſtate of ſubmiſſion in which they are held at preſent. — By the enumeration of the year 1766 they conſiſted of 12,000 males; but beſides theſe, diſtinct tunguſian ſtems wander among the ſiberian nations, who together amount to about 1700 yourts or families. Though it is one of the moſt numerous nations of Siberia, yet, by reaſon of their roaming way of life, but few ſtems of them can be accurately regiſtered. — The Tunguſes, who nomadize about the coaſts of the Eaſtern-ocean, are known under the name of LAMUTES. Of theſe, in the aforeſaid year, only about 400 men were inrolled to the payment of tribute.

SECTION VI.

Nations of uncertain Origin.

BESIDES the ſeveral nations we have named, who can be traced back to ſome certain primitive ſtock, there moreover dwell in the ruſſian empire ſome NATIONS WHOSE ORIGIN IS UTTERLY UNCERTAIN, and who ſeem to ſtand in no relation with the branches that are known. All theſe, from particular reſemblances, and from the geographical ſituation of their homeſteads, may be reduced to two claſſes, one compriſing the SAMOYEDIAN, and the other the EASTERN-SIBERIAN NATIONS.

1. The hiſtory and the origin of the SAMOYEDES is not much more known even among the people themſelves, than by the Ruſſians and the reſt of Europe. Leading a nomadic life in bleak and ſavage deſerts, without the arts of writing and chronology, they endeavour to ſave from oblivion the memory of their tranſactions and heros only by ſongs, which, perhaps with ſome truth for their foundation, are embelliſhed with ſo many fabulous additions, that even this mode of tradition affords us no means of becoming acquainted with their antient ſtate. When the

victorious Ruſſians, in the progreſs of their conqueſts, came up to this people, they found them already out of their paternal, probably more ſouthern, ſeats, of which they had much earlier been deprived by the Tartars, and no where in their peculiar condition; a great part of them having ſeparated, on their flight, from their correlative ſtems. Far from adequately diſcriminating theſe nations and ſtems, the very names of them are either confounded or diſfigured, or arbitrarily invented; and, even ſince their ſubjection, little or nothing has happened that might tend to the elucidation of theſe accidental perplexities. The cold and trackleſs wilds of the ſamoyede nations have never yet been trod by the foot of any inquiſitive traveller; the collectors of the tribute and ſurveyors, from whom we might expect ſome ſort of information, have naturally more in view their proper buſineſs and the advantages of traffic, than the collecting of hiſtorical accounts; and out of their territory individuals from theſe tribes are very ſeldom ſeen. — In ſpite of all theſe obſtacles, the ſtriking harmony of languages, as well as the great ſimilarity in mode of life and bodily formation, evince the near relationſhip of the ſtems and nations which we now with reaſon claſs under the denomination of Samoyede.

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The preſent home of the PROPER SAMOYEDES are the coaſts of the Frozen-ocean, from about the 65th deg. of north lat. quite to the ſea-ſhore. Nova Zemlia indeed is not inhabited by them, but eaſtward acroſs the Yeniſſey extend the coaſts on which they ſwarm up to the 75th deg. of latitude. In theſe regions, the coldeſt, rudeſt, and moſt deſolate of all the earth, dwell the Samoyedes, ſolitary indeed and ſcattered, from the White-ſea to the other ſide of the Yeniſſey, and almoſt up to the Lena, therefore both in Europe and in Siberia. They call themſelves Nenetſch, perſons, or Choſovo men. The origin of their uſual appellative is uncertain.

Thoſe on the weſtern ſide of the Ural, or the EUROPEAN SAMOYEDES, were tributary to Ruſſia ſo long ago as the year 1525, conſequently long before the reduction of their ſiberian relatives. The regions here over which they ſtray are about and between the rivers Meſen and Petſchora, therefore in the governments of Archangel and Vologda, where they live independently, in a ſtate of ſeparation from other nations. — The SIBERIAN SAMOYEDES, on the eaſtern ſide of the uralian mountains, are in the government of Tobolſk, along the coaſts of the ſtraights of Vaigat, about the exit of the Oby, between

the Oby and the Yeniſſey, and in the parts contiguous to the lower Lena. Collectively they are more numerous than the Oſtiaks, but like them only ſingly and diſperſed in the prodigious tracts of country occupied in common by them.

Among the nations that apparently ſtand in various degrees of affinity with the Samoyedes, are two kinds of OSTIAKS. Of the origin and import of this name an account has been already given under a former head *; where we likewiſe ſaw, that under this denomination three tribes were comprehended, namely: the Oſtiaks of the Oby, of the Narym, and of the Yeniſſey. The firſt of theſe manifeſtly belong to the finniſh hive; not entirely with the like conviction, we arrange the two laſt among the Samoyedes. — The NARYM OSTIAKS, who are alſo called Moraſes, are about the upper parts of the Surgut, in the diſtricts of the Oby quite to the Narym, and about the mouths of the rivers Ket and Tom. — The YENISSEY OSTIAKS, though they reſemble the two other nations of that name in appellation and mode of life, but ſpeak a language ſo entirely different from that of the Oſtiaks, as well as from all the ſiberian tongues, that they might

* See the article FINNS, vol. i. ſect. 2.

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be rather taken for races of a particular nation, though not the ſmalleſt indications of their origin has been hitherto diſcovered *. Theſe dwell about the inferior Yeniſſey, near and between the Samoyedes. When the Ruſſians, in the laſt century, had extended their conqueſts hither, theſe Oſtiaks not only immediately ſubmitted, but alſo aſſiſted the Ruſſians to ſubdue the neighbouring nations. In proportion to the dimenſions of the ground they occupy, they are not numerous.

The following petty tribes, on account of their ſimilarity in features, manner of life, and language, are with great juſtice claſſed with the Samoyedes: the KOIBALS, on the Yeniſſey; the SOYOTES and MUTORES, both in the ſayane mountains; the TUBINZES, on the left ſhore of the Yeniſſey; the KAMATSCHINTZES or Kaimaſches, round the ſource of the rivers Kana and Mana; the YURALES or Yurakes, between the Oby and the Yeniſſey; the KARAGASSES,

* Among the Tartars of Kraſnoyarſk, the Aſanes, or Oſſanes, the Chotovtzes, and Schatka, the Arintzes ſpeak this language, though in different dialects. They therefore are not Tartars, becauſe they have intercourſe with the Tartars, and, though following the ſame mode of life, have another language; probably they are a mingled remainder of the yeniſſey Oſtiaks.

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in the udinſkoi circle, and a few ſtill more inconſiderable remnants of nations.

2. The nations which we comprehend under the general head of EASTERN-SIBERIAN NATIONS are the Yukaghires, the Kamptſchadales, the Koriaks, the Tſchuktſches, and the inhabitants of the north-eaſtern ſiberian-american Archipelago, the Kurillians, and the Aleutans. Of theſe ſeveral people, the Yukaghires have a certain reſemblance with the Yakutes, the Tſchuktſches with the northern Iſlanders, the Kamtſchadales with ſome of the Kurillians, and the Koriaks form as it were the connecting link between the Tſchuktſches and the Kamtſchadales. Yet, after all, the variations of theſe nations are ſtill greater than their points of reſemblance; therefore, till we have more accurate hiſtorical accounts, which are here entirely wanting, and of obtaining which ſcarcely any hope can be entertained, they cannot be reduced to any common origin. For which reaſon we are only able here to rank them according to their geographical ſituation, and not by their ſuppoſed affinity.

The north-eaſternmoſt part of the terra firma of Siberia was known to the Ruſſians in the latter half of the ſeventeenth century: the conqueſt of it, however, proceeded but ſlowly, from the innumerable obſtacles they had to encounter. Till

Till the year 1690 nothing was known of Kamtſchatka, except what was told in vague reports: the poſſeſſion of this country was entered upon in 1696. The Kurilly iſlands were diſcovered in 1710. In the year 1727 the maritime expeditions were begun under the command of captain Behring, which continued till the year 1741, and by which the north-eaſtern coaſts of Siberia, the inland ſea between Siberia and America, and even that continent, in part newly diſcovered, and partly accurately explored and aſcertained. Theſe countries and iſlands were afterwards viſited by ruſſian hunters * and merchants, and by degrees made tributary. Tſchukſchi-noſs, or the promontory of Tſchuktſchi, and in general the region adjacent to the Anadyr, were earlier known than Kamtſchatka, having been conquered in 1738. But, it being extremely difficult to retain the ſavage inhabitants of theſe wild and dreary regions in obedience, they have been abandoned from time to time to their independence.

The obſtacles and difficulties ariſing from the great diſtance, the pathleſs regions and the rudeneſs of the inhabitants, have hitherto rendered a more particular knowledge of theſe nations nearly

* Promuiſchlenniki.

unattain-

unattainable. All that we know of them confiſts in ſome broken accounts collected and publiſhed either by paſſing mariners, or by unlettered hunters and merchants. Beſides, but little information is to be expected of the origin and tranſactions of tribes who live without writing, and perhaps even without traditions.

The YUKAGHIRES occupy the northernmoſt parts of the territory of the Yakutes bordering on the Frozen-ocean, from the Yama to the Kolyma. They were known to the ruſſian conquerors as early as the Yakutes, but, owing to their wild and impaſſable deſerts, could not be completely brought to ſubjection till the year 1639. They had never ſeen a horſe, which nevertheleſs were found among the Yakutes, and therefore appear to have been for a great length of time confined to their cold, fenny, and mountainous diſtricts. The whole people, at the reviſion before the laſt, paid taxes only for about 1000 heads; but it was ſo eaſy for them in their deſerts to evade the payment, that their entire population may be computed at a much higher number.

The dreary, rocky, unfruitful mountain-ridges, which form the peninſula of Kamtſchatka, have always in all probability, had their peculiar inhabitants:

bitants: namely, the Koriaks in the northern part oppoſite the continent, and the KAMTSCHADALES on the ſouthern parts of the peninſula. Theſe latter call themſelves Itelmans, that is, inhabitants. The country has its name from the river Kamtſchatka, which again was ſo called, it ſeems, from ſome brave warrior named Konſata. The origin and the fates and fortunes of the Kamtſchadales are utterly unknown. By their language, mode of life, and bodily formation, they may be taken to be a diſtinct people, related with ſome neighbouring iſlanders. Their number, according to the enumeration of 1760, amounts to about 3000 males; but it may be admitted to be really three or four times larger.

The KORIAKS probably have their name from the word Kora, which in their language ſignifies a rein-deer. They dwell about the northern part of the Penſhinſkoi-gulf and in the north of Kamtſchatka, near and among the Kamtſchadales, Tunguſes, Lamutes, and Tſchuktſches. The circumſtance that they do not appear in the hiſtory of their ſouthern neighbours, and ſtill more the great likeneſs they bear to many iſlanders of the Eaſtern-ocean, and even with the neareſt Americans beyond the ſtraights, gives room to ſuppoſe that they, and for the ſame reaſons the Tſchuktſches, are the primitive poſ-

ſeſſors of theſe coaſts, who either came over from the continent of America, or were divided by the probable infraction of the ſea, and the conſequent ſeparation of the two quarters of the world. In numbers the Koriaks are about equal to the Kamtſchadales.

The TSCHUKTSCHES occupy the north-eaſtern point of Siberia towards the Frozen-ocean and the Eaſtern-ocean, which is called the Tſchuktſchy-cape, and have in all reſpects ſo much ſimilarity with the Koriaks, that one might eaſily be tempted to take the two nations for relational ſtems. They may be computed at 4000 bows.

The KURILLIANS are the inhabitants of the iſlands, named after them, in the Eaſtern-ocean. They bear not all the ſame appellation, and likewiſe differ much in language and manner of life; ſome verging more upon the Japaneſe, and others on the Kamtſchadales. In the year 1766 all the inhabitants of theſe iſlands tributary to the ruſſian empire were regiſtered at 262 heads.

The ALEUTANS, laſtly, inhabit the chain of iſlands denominated from them, extending from Kamtſchatka north-eaſtwards to the continent of America. In proportion to the dimenſions of their iſlands they are tolerably numerous, and at preſent are moſtly ſubject to the tribute.

SECTION VII.

Diſperſed Bands of European and Aſiatic Nations.

THE laſt Section of this claſſification compriſes the ſeveral BODIES OF EUROPEAN AND ASIATIC NATIONS DISPERSED IN VARIOUS PARTS OF THE EMPIRE. The number of them all together is indeed very conſiderable; but each diſtinct nation is not ſufficiently numerous for being here allowed a ſeparate place. Beſides, the majority of them are only emigrated colonies from larger nations, who have voluntarily ſettled on a variety of occaſions and in different ways in the ſeveral provinces of the ruſſian empire. We here paſs over at once the colonies before-named, as enough has been ſaid concerning them.

Of all the european nations that fall under this head, none is more numerous than the GERMAN. In the governments of Riga, Reval, and Courland, they form the moſt conſiderable though not the moſt numerous part of the inhabitants. The nobility in theſe provinces conſiſt moſtly of the deſcendants of the teutonic knights, who, at the commencement of the thirteenth century, conquered theſe countries for themſelves

ſelves and the church, and made the natives their ſlaves. Even the burghers and free people, or the greater part of the townſmen, are Germans, who have gradually, ſince the diſcovery of Livonia reſorted thither and ſettled. Their number is very conſiderable, and though it be greatly exceeded by that of the proper natives, the Lettes and the Eſthonians, yet the german language may be conſidered as predominant in thoſe governments. According to a probable calculation, founded on the laſt enumeration, the Germans reſiding in the government of Riga amount to 30,000, and thoſe in that of Reval to 15,000; in Courland they are probably ſtill more numerous. Both in Moſco and in St. Peterſburg they live by thouſands; in the latter alone they are known to be upwards of 17,000. Even in the government of that city, as well as in that of Vyborg, they form no inconſiderable part of the nobility and citizens. As coloniſts, properly ſo called, or countrymen, many thouſand german families came in 1763 into the governments of St. Peterſburg, Saratof, Voronetch, and Tſchernigof, as ſettlers, the number of whom ſince the year 1783 is much increaſed by new ſettlements in the government of Ekatarinoſlaf, and in the province of Taurida. All theſe and the multitude of ſuch as live ſeparately about

about the empire, taken together, may probably far exceed 100,000.

Of the other european nations, there are only detached colonies, especially in the large towns. In the governments of Vyborg and Reval, and on some of the islands of the Baltic, a number of the inhabitants are SWEDES, though not to a considerable amount. The islands Vorms and Rugen in the Baltic are partly inhabited by DANES. These, however, as well as people from the other european nations, are most numerous in Mosco and St. Petersburg, and in some of the great towns of the empire. In most of the sea-ports are ENGLISHMEN, who, however, seldom fix there, but as soon as their affairs will permit, return to their native country.

FRENCH are dispersed in considerable numbers over the whole empire; the plan lately devised for establishing a colony of emigrants in the southern governments, has not hitherto been put into execution. Besides the ITALIANS we meet with in the capital towns, there are also in the province of Taurida some remains of that people, the descendants of those who settled there during the period that the Genoese were in possession of the peninsula.

GREEKS are in Little-Russia, at Neshin, in the government of Tschernigof, in that of Ekatarinoslaf,

noſlaf, and in Taurida, where they form in ſome meaſure reſpectable colonies. Their number in the Krimea was formerly very conſiderable; but in the year 1778 the inhabitants of the Krimea, who were of the greek religion, applied by a reſcript ſubſcribed by the metropolitans of Gothia and Keffa to the empreſs, requeſting to be admitted as ſubjects of the ruſſian empire, which was granted by a manifeſto in the year 1779. The empreſs defrayed the expences of their tranſport from the Krim, and aſſigned to them a conſiderable tract of country bordering on the Solonoya and the ſea of Azof: the merchants, however, and the trading part of the colony were ſent to the newly-erected towns of Ekatarinoſlaf and Mariupol. After the Ruſſians had taken poſſeſſion of the Krim, the Greeks for the moſt part went thither again. — In the government of Ekatarinoſlaf are alſo ALBANIANS, MOLDAVIANS, VALAKHIANS, and ARNAUTS, though in no great numbers.

The OTTOMAN TURKS, who, either by the fortune of war, or by the capture of particular cities and provinces, are become ſubjects of the ruſſian empire, have for the greater part diſperſed; they no where form what may be properly called colonies, yet they are found together in ſmall numbers at Orenburg, in the former Otchakof-

ſteppe,

ſteppe, and in other places. — In the diſtricts of Aſtrakhan and Orenburg are found many PERSIANS; alſo on the Kama there is a colony of Perſians and ARABS. — The ARMENIANS are particularly numerous in the towns of Orenburg, Kiſſiar, Moſdok, St. Peterſburg, and Moſco; but eſpecially in the governments of Caucaſus and Ekatarinoſlaf, where they compoſe a colony conſiſting of ſome thouſands. The town Nachitſchevan, on the Don, is almoſt entirely inhabited by them. They were formerly, next to the Tartars, the moſt numerous in the Krim; but a great part of them in the year 1779 withdrew with the krimean Greeks into Ruſſia. — In Aſtrakhan and Kiſſiar are likewiſe ſettlements of INDIANS, who partly originate from Hindoſtan, and partly from the province of Multan.

To conclude; there are in Ruſſia very conſiderable colonies of the two wandering nations, who are every where at home, and have no where any country, namely Jews and Gypſies. The JEWS are in great numbers throughout the poliſh provinces which now belong to the ruſſian empire; and they are ſeen in pretty ſtrong bodies on the borders of the neighbouring governments: whereas in the reſt of Ruſſia they are found very ſparingly, and in moſt parts not at all. Taurida,

however, is an exception to this, where they are partly fixed as antient inhabitants. At the time when the Chazares were maſters of the Krimea, even ſome of their ſovereigns, according to their traditions, profeſſed the religion of Moſes. — The GYPSIES are particularly in the provinces of both Great and Little Ruſſia, where they ſtroll about in large companies.

FROM this contracted view, in which ſome few other petty tribes are entirely overlooked, it appears that the inhabitants of the ruſſian empire form at leaſt EIGHTY DISTINCT NATIONS, as well in their lineage as in their manners and their language eſſentially different from each other *. — To ſee ſo extraordinary a multitude of nations and tribes united in one body-politic is certainly a curious phænomenon, of which we ſhould look in vain for another example in the hiſtory of the world. This mingled maſs of people, ſo extremely numerous, preſents a ſpectacle which muſt be highly intereſting to every reflecting obſerver. Its phyſical, civil, and moral

* In this enumeration, the collateral branches of the Ruſſians, Kalmuks, and Tartars, as well as the relative tribes of the Oſtiaks of the Yeniſſey, are not included.

ſtate

ſtate forms a grand and inſtructive picture, in which are ſeen all the modifications whereof this ſtate, by the moſt various cauſes and operations, is ſuſceptible: a commentary on the hiſtory of mankind, illuſtrative of the gradual developement of civilization by the moſt lively and ſtriking example. — On the whole ſcale of human nature, from the rude and brutal condition to the ſummit of ſenſible and intellectual refinement, there is ſcarcely a remarkable tranſition which may not be matched from the foregoing liſt. Here are ſeen nations of HUNTERS and FISHERS, roaming about their foreſts, without permanent habitations, defying all dangers and indifferent to the accommodations of life, who have ſcarcely any notion of property, who feed upon raw fleſh and unprepared fruits, and wrap themſelves in the ſkins of the beaſts with which they contend for their exiſtence, and by which they preſerve their lives. — Near to theſe we find PASTORAL nations, obtaining their nouriſhment, their clothing, and even a ſort of affluence ſolely from their flocks and herds; living with them in moveable tents on everlaſting perambulations, and paſſing their days in a patriarchal ſimplicity of manners, generally without the art of writing, and without the knowledge and uſe of money. — Again we behold

nations, who devote themſelves to the labours of AGRICULTURE, carrying on their various occupations, one while incomplete and directed to ſingle objects, at another on a general ſcale and with ingenuity and induſtry. We obſerve the progreſs of culture, in regions where the virgin earth, the firſt time for thouſands of years, opens her boſom to the ſtrange hand of the countryman; and, where inſtead of temporary huts of felt, houſes and villages ariſe to our view. — With equal ſurpriſe we ſee villages changed into towns, and houſes into palaces, where PRODUCTIVE INDUSTRY has erected her manufactories, and where diligence collects the products of the diſtant parts of the world for traffic.

As all the gradations of living are found among the inhabitants of the ruſſian empire, ſo we ſee alſo examples of all the modifications of CIVIL CONSTITUTION. Among the Tſchuktſches and the inhabitants of the Eaſtern-iſles we ſcarcely find an idea of ſocial connection; among other nations in the eaſt of Siberia we perceive among the Laplanders, in the FAMILY-GOVERNMENT of fathers and elders, the firſt rude ſketch of monarchy; but far more conſiderable is the number of thoſe who divide themſelves into STEMS and HORDES, which are again parted into

into races. A pure DEMOCRACY is diſcernible in the generality of the branches of Kozaks; while the Kalmuks and Kirghiſes have a mixed REPUBLICAN MONARCHY. Not leſs numerous are the corruptions of theſe ſeveral forms of government, which all at laſt diſſolve into the elements of UNLIMITED MONARCHY. — Some nations have a FAMILY-NOBILITY hereditary in their offspring; while others have only a PERSONAL-NOBILITY, founded on the reſpectability of age, on the influence of wealth, or on the brilliancy of perſonal talents. — Of all the modifications of civil conſtitution none is perhaps ſo ſingular as the military democracy of the Kozaks, the eſſence and aim of which is war, and even of which we have been witneſſes of a corruption, in its denying the other half of the human race all civil and domeſtic community.

Not leſs edifying and diverſified is the view of the RELIGIOUS IDEAS AND FORMS OF WORSHIP which theſe nations have adopted for the ſervice and the honour of the Supreme Being. We find in the ruſſian empire not only the generality of the known parties and ſects of the CHRISTIAN faith, but the JEWISH, the MOHAMMEDAN, the LAMA, and the SCHAMANE religions have here their numerous votaries. — From the moſt monſtrous POLYTHEISM to the

total unacquaintance with any idea of a ſupreme intelligence, there are innumerable turnings in which the human intellect may ſtray, and the religious opinions of the ſavage and half-ſavage tribes of the ruſſian empire preſent us with no inconſiderable a ſupplement to the hiſtory of theſe aberrations.

Great as the difference is between the modes of life, conſtitutions, and religions of the inhabitants of the ruſſian empire, ſo motley and various is alſo the picture of their PHYSICAL CONDITION, their MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DRESSES, DWELLINGS, UTENSILS, and WEAPONS. What a contraſt between the flat, broad, beardleſs phyſiognomy and the yellow figure-painted ſkin of the eaſt-ſiberian nations, and between the europeaan form and complexion of the genuine ruſſian ſtems! What a diſtance from the earth-holes of the Samoyedes to the palaces of the reſidence, from the needle-work of fiſh-bones and ſinews to the weaving of tapeſtry, from the ſling and the arrow to the fire-arms of the modern art of war in Europe! — If the view of ſuch a great and ſtriking diverſity in all the concerns of mankind, and in all the diſplays of their activity afford inſtructive and entertaining matter for reflection, our aſtoniſhment is not leſs excited by the conſideration, that this prodigi-

ous maſs of people can be kept in the moſt unconditional ſubmiſſion to the unlimited will of one ruler, and the confluence of all forms of government, however great their diverſity, maintained in the general form of one ſtate. The key to this ſingular phænomenon is to be drawn from the political and religious toleration which marks the ſpirit of the ruſſian monarchy. In no ſtate of the world is there a completer uniformity and unity of adminiſtration, but no where is the phyſical and moral variety greater than here. Forbearance in all regards, which do not oppoſe the being and aim of the government, the omnipotence of the unlimited will is only ſhewn where the direction of all the energies is neceſſary to one end. — Thus, the individuals of mankind have a ſphere in which they may range till, by the gradual approach to civilization, from the ſeveral ſtems of this extenſive ſtate ſhall be formed one great and happy nation; a period which the philoſopher expects, and which Catharine the legiſlatrix has accelerated by more than a century.

VIEW

OF THE

RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

BOOK III.

WE have been contemplating the inhabitants of the ruſſian empire according to their ſeveral deſcents: we will now inquire into their PHYSICAL STATE. — From the great diverſity which the mixture of ſo many nations, conſidered even in this point of view, produces, it will be neceſſary to aſſign certain bounds to the contents of this diviſion of our work, and to treat the ſubjects of it in a particular order. Let us therefore firſt examine the preſent ſtate of the amount of the people and the population, as well in regard to the whole empire, as to the particular parts of it; then turn our eyes upon the public inſtitutions which have in view the preſervation and increaſe of the population; and laſtly endeavour to point out the phyſical characteriſtics of the inhabitants according to their primary deſcents.

SECTION I.

Population of the Ruſſian Empire.

DISTINGUISHING the term *populouſneſs* from *population*, we underſtand by the former the bare number of the inhabitants of a country, by the latter; on the other hand, the relation it bears to the ſuperficies of the ground on which they dwell. This explanation being premiſed, no doubt can be entertained that the ruſſian empire, which in regard to its ſuperficial contents is exceeded by no country in the world, muſt alſo, in regard to the number of its people, be reckoned among the moſt powerful. The knowledge of this important ſubject is founded on the numberments, or reviſions, as they are ſtyled in Ruſſia, which were firſt ſet on foot by Peter the great in the year 1723, and which have ſince been repeated at the diſtance of every twenty years. The occaſion of theſe enumerations was the collection of the head-money, or the perſonal tax which every male belonging to the claſs of either boors or burghers is bound annually to pay, and which has continued to be the main object of theſe reviſions to the preſent day. Agreeably to this end, therefore, they neither extend through all the ranks

ranks nor all the tribes of the empire; the nobility, the clergy, the whole military and civil eſtabliſhment, the court eſtabliſhment, the ſchools and ſeminaries, the greater part of the nomadic nations—as well as the whole female ſex are excluded. On the other hand, in the regiſter of the reviſion appear all the males of the claſſes ſubject to the poll-tax, the ſuckling as well as the ſuperannuated old man, and neither the births nor the deaths are brought into the account till the ſucceeding enumeration. At the firſt reviſions were omitted not only the provinces of Livonia and Little-Ruſſia, which at that time paid no head-money, and as the management of that buſineſs was given to commiſſaries who had more in view their private intereſt than the truth of the eſtimate, it is not ſurpriſing if their ſtatements generally proved ſhort of what the real number of the people might be.

At the firſt reviſion in the year 1723 (which, however, as well as ſome of the following, were never entirely finiſhed in one year) the perſons ſubject to the tax were given in at 5,794,928. In this ſtatement are compriſed the boors working in the mines in the year 1735; but all the provinces and ranks which at that time were not ſubjected to the head-money were omitted.

At

At the ſecond reviſion, in 1743, there were found 6,643,335, and at the third 7,363,348; which ſum, if we double it for the female ſex, and join them with the later enumerations in the provinces not ſubject to the poll-tax, a total will ariſe of about 20,000,000 of perſons which the ruſſian empire may have contained about the year 1763 in the enumerated claſſes *.

A very different and far juſter reſult proceeds from the fourth reviſion, which was made in the year 1783 on better principles and with greater accuracy. The main object, to learn the number of the taxable people, was ſtill the baſis of this enumeration, but it was alſo extended over all the provinces then ſubject to the ruſſian ſceptre †, including the female ſex, and ſeveral ranks and tribes till then omitted; the eſtimates were not, as before, entruſted to particular reviſors, but were made out by the town-magiſtrates, the noblemen, the preſidents and elders of the crown-boors, in which they were greatly aſſiſted by the union of the former large governments

* The ſame amount is given by Schlœtzer for the ſame time, in his book on the innoxiouſneſs of the ſmall-pox in Ruſſia, p. 132, but he ſeems to have included all the claſſes of people, numbered and unnumbered.

† Among which remains hitherto unnumbered, the firſt acquiſition from Poland of the year 1773, containing 1,226,966 inhabitants.

and

and the newly-inſtituted viceroyalty-conſtitution; the whole enumeration was completed in one half year, (from the end of the year 1781 to July 1782,) and only the governments of Kolhyvan, Tobolſk, and Irkutſk, on account of their being ſo vaſt and ſo remote, were left till January 1783; the ſtatements were ordered to be made out according to preſcribed ſchedules of a tabulary form, in which regard was had to ſeveral political matters; at the ſame time they were directed to be made with the utmoſt accuracy, and the penalties were very ſevere in caſes of concealment or evaſion *. By the liſts of that reviſion, there were found to be, in the forty-one viceroyalties of which Ruſſia at that time conſiſted, of male inhabitants:

Merchants - - - - - - -	107,408
Burghers - - - - - - -	293,793
Odnodvortzi and free countrymen - - - - - - - -	773,656
Exempt from taxes - - -	310,830
Crown-boors - - - - -	4,674,603
Private-boors - - - - -	6,678,239
Together	12,838,529

* The imperial manifeſto and decree of the ſenate concerning the fourth reviſion, in the St. Peterſburgiſche Journal, of the year 1781, tom. iv. p. 192.

The

The number of females was only known of ſome governments; if we double the above amount for them, we obtain in the enumerated claſſes of the ſaid one-and-forty viceroyalties, a total of 25,677,000 perſons of both ſexes. — The authenticity of theſe ſtatements can only be liable to one doubt, namely, that the real number of the people may be *greater* than by the enumerations it appears to be: for, as every man marked in the reviſion-liſts actually pays his tax, it is not to be conceived that theſe liſts make the population to be larger, though it may eaſily be ſuppoſable that they make it ſmaller than in fact it is, becauſe concealment is attended with ſuch a material advantage.

Thus far we are enabled to ground the calculation of the number of the people on actual enumerations; but for the ſtate of the unnumbered claſſes, and for the increaſe of the population, as well by the great acquiſitions ſince the year 1783, as by the very conſiderable ſurplus of the births, and the numerous acceſſions of foreign coloniſts, we have only probable and partly-authenticated data to proceed upon, as the reſult of the fifth reviſion, in 1796, if it be publiſhed, is not yet come to hand. In the mean time, the following calculation, made with the greateſt

greateſt nicety of examination, may well be admitted to ſupply that defect.

By the reviſion of 1783, there were in the ſaid 41 governments, computing the female ſex as equal to the male, of regiſtered perſons -	25,677,000
The amount of the Kozaks of the Don and the Euxine, according to the moſt authentic private accounts, at leaſt - - - - - -	220,000
For the unnumbered tribes and claſſes at the time of the fourth reviſion, we cannot, without the higheſt improbability, allow leſs than - - - - - - - - - -	1,500,000
Conſequently, the ruſſian empire, in the year 1783, might have inhabitants amounting all together to	27,397,000
According to the reſults deduced from experiments and obſervations on the fruitfulneſs and mortality in Ruſſia, this maſs muſt of itſelf have increaſed annually more than half a million. If, in order to keep as far as poſſible from all exaggeration, we deduct the half of this ſurplus of births, to allow for the diminution it may have	

ſuffered by an extraordinary mortality, as by war; there remains for every year an increaſe of 25,000 new citizens, which, excluſively of all aſcending proportion, in 12 years makes a ſum total of - - - - - - - - - -	3,000,000
The new acquiſitions ſince the year 1783, or the preſent nine vice-royalties of Taurida, Minſk, Bratzlau, Voſneſenſk, Podolia, Volhynia, Courland, Vilna, and Slonim, contain, according to a legitimated ſtatement already mentioned * -	5,755,000
Conſequently, we may admit, by the moſt moderate eſtimate †, the population of the ruſſian empire at preſent to be - - - - - - or in a round ſum thirty-ſix millions of perſons.	36,152,000

Of

* See vol. i. p. 327. note.

† That the reader may be enabled to judge for himſelf of the fairneſs of this ſtatement, we will here bring together ſome particulars.

The land and ſea forces, with the militia, or the military commandos of the ſeveral governments, including wives and children, can ſcarcely be ſet down at a lower number than - - - -	800,000

According

Of this prodigious mafs the greater part by far belongs to european Ruffia. The five governments

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According to the eftablifhment of the viceroyalties every government confifting of ten circles has about 600 civil-officers, without reckoning the hoft of chancery-placemen and fcribes, and befides the watchmen, money-tellers, couriers, &c. If we reckon the faid 41 viceroyalties on an average at 10 circles each (moft of them have from 12 to 15) and the number of all the officers and fervants at only 1000 perfons; tripling this fum for fuch as are married and their families, it yields - - - - - - - - 120,000

The cuftom-houfe officers, ftrand-furveyors, ftrand and frontier riders, poftmen, &c. with wives and children, we will only compute at - - - - 80,000

The amount of the ruffian clergy is commonly eftimated at 68,000 perfons, of whom the generality are married fecular prieffs. Including their families we may properly give this clafs at 200,000

Thefe few heads therefore, by the loweft eftimate, already produce - - - - - - 1,200,000 perfons; and yet we have omitted the whole nobility, the court eftablifhment, the imperial colleges, the academies, fchools, and feminaries of education, the foreigners, the major part of the inhabitants of Mofco and St. Peterfburg; here are alfo wanting the wandering or uncivilized tribes, the vagabonds and fugitives, &c. as well as the prifoners and criminals condemned to the public works, the number of whom would be incredibly large, if it were not at times diminifhed by manifeftos of grace. — That our ftatement

ments of Perm, Ufa, Kolhyvan, Tobolſk, and Irkutſk, comprehended under the general name of Siberia, contain all together, according to the reviſion-liſts, only 2,215,000, or, with the unnumbered claſſes and tribes, perhaps above three millions and a half of inhabitants. The population of the european part is therefore about fourteen times greater; and the ruſſian empire, which in regard to its ſuperficial contents moſtly belongs to Aſia, muſt in regard to its population be reckoned as belonging to Europe.

On the ſcale of the population of the european ſtates, Ruſſia holds the ſecond place, having in this reſpect only the ottoman empire above it, which is uſually admitted to have 49 millions of

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is not too high, if we reckon all theſe deſcriptions at 300,000, will be evident from the following compariſon. In the 41 governments of the ruſſian empire no more than 12 of them have delivered in any near ſtatement of the female ſex or the exempted claſſes, and though even of theſe 12 eſtimates not one is entirely complete, yet the difference amounts to upwards of 1,607,000 perſons, as the ſum of the inhabitants of all the 41 governments, by the reviſion-liſts, is only 25,677,000, but according to the ſtatiſtic tables it is ſet down at 27,284,000. How much more conſiderable would not this difference be if we had only from all the governments *ſuch* data, and how entirely different would the reſult appear, if it could be made out of *all* the claſſes and with the utmoſt accuracy.

inhabit-

inhabitants, whereof 8 millions are ſtated to be in Europe, 36 in Aſia, and 5 in Africa. Excluding the parts of both theſe countries which lie out of Europe from this compariſon, it will follow that Ruſſia has the largeſt population of all the ſtates of Europe. — The countries which come neareſt to the ruſſian empire in this regard, are the germanic ſtates, which may be admitted at 26 millions; France, to which we may ſtill, notwithſtanding the havoc brought on by various means ſince the revolution, allow 25 millions; and the ſtates of Auſtria, which may be taken at about an equal number. Of the neighbouring ſtates whoſe relative intereſts are of importance to Ruſſia, Pruſſia and Sweden are the moſt remarkable. The former, with its lately acquired poſſeſſions in Poland and the circle of Franconia, has about the fourth; the latter the eleventh part of the population of the ruſſian empire.

The relative proportion of the population in the ſeveral governments varies very much. According to the precept that was iſſued concerning the erection of them, each was to contain not more than between 3 and 400,000 males; but, as by reaſon of a difference in local circumſtances, it was found inconvenient to adhere ſtrictly to that injunction, many governments obtained at their very firſt erection, ſome a larger and ſome a ſmaller num-

ber of perſons; and this inequality has ſince been conſiderably augmented by the natural increaſe, and by new comers on one hand, and emigrations on the other. The moſt populous government is at preſent that of Moſco, which, including the metropolis, contains upwards of 1,139,000 perſons; the loweſt population is that of the province of Taurida, which is computed to have about 150,000 inhabitants. — Several of theſe governments, in regard to population, may vie with foreign kingdoms; as the government of Moſco, which is on a level with Denmark; or that of Caucaſus, which (though only the 37th in the gradation of the ſeveral governments) is equal with Sardinia.

Although the bare knowledge of the number of people in a ſtate affords very remarkable and fruitful reſults, yet it is properly the proportion of this maſs to the extent of the country inhabited by them, by which any determinate notion of the intenſive power and culture of it can be obtained. The ruſſian empire, which, from its coloſſal maſs of people, is at the head of all the european ſtates, takes, in regard to its *populouſneſs*, but a very ſubordinate place. Without pretending to bring it into compariſon with Sweden, poor as it is in people, which reckons about 220 inhabitants to every ſquare geographical mile,

mile, the ruſſian empire has (according to the above ſtated proportions of the ſuperficial contents with the population) only about 109 on an equal ſpace.

In a ſtate, however, of ſo prodigious a magnitude, and containing ſo many tracts of country entirely uninhabited or uninhabitable, ſuch a general compariſon as this leads to very unſafe or totally falſe concluſions. The bare diſtinction of the european from the aſiatic Ruſſia yields a very different reſult: the former having a population of 405, the latter of 11 perſons to a ſquare mile. On purſuing this diſtinction farther, by comparing the governments with each other, the product will be, that of 45 of them, (the five newly acquired not reckoned,) 8 contain below 100; 9 contain from 100 to 500; 17 from 500 to 1000; 7 from 1000 to 1500; 3 from 1500 to 2000, and only 1 above 2000 inhabitants on a ſquare mile. This laſt honourable precedence is held by the government of Moſco, which (including the metropolis) numbers 2403 perſons on the aforeſaid ſuperficies. To the ſecond claſs belong the governments of Kaluga, Tula, and Tſchernigof, and to the third, Riaſan, Kurſk, Kief, Orel, Kharkof, Yaroſlaf, and Novgorod-Sieverſk. The ſixth and pooreſt claſs compriſes, with the countries of the Kozaks,

eſpecially the north-european and ſiberian deſerts; and here the degree of population falls ſo low, that of the governments of Tobolſk and Irkutſk, the former has but 7, and the latter only 3 perſons on every ſquare geographical mile. However, we muſt not forget to remark, that it is exactly in theſe countries that the unregiſtered tribes are the moſt numerous. — Moreover, theſe ſtatements ſhould be conſiderably heightened throughout, to bring them nearer to the truth, as neither all the claſſes of people, nor the increaſe of the population ſince 1783, are accounted for in them.

The moſt populous diſtrict of the ruſſian empire is, therefore, the tract of country between the 49th and 58th degree of north lat.; farther to the north and to the ſouth, as well as eaſtwards beyond the 65th degree of longit. this richneſs in people is continually decreaſing. And yet even that happy tract of country, ſmall as it is in extent proportionately with the enormous magnitude of the empire, is not to be compared to the population of other ſtates, though even far behind it in regard to naturally favourable circumſtances. If Ruſſia poſſeſſed only in its beſt and moſt fertile provinces a generally equal population with the governments of Kaluga, Tula, and Tſchernigof; in that caſe

the european part of it alone would have greatly above a hundred million of inhabitants.

Nothing ſeems at firſt ſight more ſtriking, than this deficiency of people in a country that poſſeſſes an inexhauſtible and partly ſtill unemployed ſtore of all the material neceſſaries of life; where the countryman, at leaſt in the inland provinces, may uſe all the treaſures of nature without limitation; and where the public taxes are ſo moderate and ſo uniformly diſtributed. This apparent contradiction may, however, be very eaſily explained by affording ſome attention to the following conſiderations.

The degree of population to which any country can attain depends equally on the natural quality of the ſoil and climate, and on the induſtry of the inhabitants. Where theſe circumſtances with their concomitants exiſt in the higheſt perfection, the population muſt naturally attain to the higheſt degree: but rarely as this is the happy lot of ſmall detached provinces, ſo impoſſible is it to be the caſe in all the parts of a large dominion. The ruſſian empire comprehends within its circuit prodigious tracts of country, which on account of their rude climate are utterly uninhabitable; it contains, even in its beſt climates, diſtricts which, by reaſon of the total failure of wood and water, for ever defeat all attempts that

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are made to render them habitable; in other provinces the induſtry of the people is ſo little favoured by nature, that the want of proviſions is the cauſe of emigrations. Theſe regions then are not to be accuſed of a defect of people, but may rather be ſaid to be proportionately very well ſtocked, ſince, according to circumſtances, no more people could live there than actually do. — But that even in the fertile provinces the population is but moderate in compariſon with other european ſtates, is to be explained from the following arguments: firſt, from the ſpecies of employment from which the inhabitants draw their ſupport. A country, whoſe induſtry is employed in working up raw materials, can maintain more people than another, where the whole profit ariſes from the induſtry exerted in raiſing the natural products. The inhabitants of the ruſſian empire derive their chief ſubſiſtence only from the latter; and even in this there are variations which have a powerful influence on the population. In the regions where the nomadic nations devote themſelves excluſively to the chace, the fiſhery, and the breeding of cattle, the population can never, in the nature of things, attain to the ſame degree as with the Ruſſians who purſue agriculture. — Again, if we bring into the account the numerous colonies which this better

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part of the ruſſian empire has produced, and ſtill daily produces for the enormous waſtes of Siberia, and in general for all the poſſeſſions acquired ſince the ſixteenth century, we may juſtly be amazed that the population of the middle of Ruſſia proper does not fall far lower.

Theſe conſiderations, which, were we to proſecute at length, would lead us too far, furniſh us likewiſe with a ſtandard by which we may meaſure the progreſs of population for the future. It will and muſt increaſe in the ſame ratio in which the induſtry and diligence of the nation enlarges and refines. The more agriculture ſpreads among the nomadic people of the ſteppes, the more the eſtabliſhments for working-up the native raw products multiply, the more alert the induſtry in the newly-erected towns, and the more quick the inward and outward circulation of the preſent riches of the country, — ſo much the more numerous will alſo the population be. The ſuperfluity of people will at length overflow from the plentiful regions into the deſerts, in order to gain from parſimonious nature, by increaſed exertion, thoſe bounties which, though withheld, are never entirely refuſed to induſtry and perſeverance.

Diſtant as the population of the ruſſian empire at preſent may be from ſo high a pitch, certain

certain it is that it is continually approximating it in an aſcending ratio. This is proved by that political arithmetic which examines the advancement of population by the laws of nature, and compares it with the data which the government of every country preſents for that purpoſe.

It is a known fact, that the fruitfulneſs and the mortality of the inhabitants of all countries obſerve a certain relative rule, which is in proportion to the influences upon it produced by phyſical, moral, and political cauſes. From the inveſtigations that have been made on this ſubject, it is plain that the actual population every where, if no unnatural obſtacle intervene, neither declines nor ſtands ſtill, but muſt go on augmenting. The reſults which have been drawn from innumerable concordant obſervations, yield the following general mean-proportion by which the progreſs of population, taken on the whole, proceeds: that, namely, of 36 perſons annually one dies, and that to 10 deaths on an average, ordinary years ſet off againſt epidemical, 12 or 13 perſons are born. Wherever the progreſs of population deviates from this rule, either very advantageous or very detrimental circumſtances muſt operate. Hence we ſee how important and inſtructive ſuch inveſtigations, applied to particular countries may be, as well for the poli-

tical

tical knowledge of it, as for the adminiſtration itſelf. We learn from them not only the influence of the natural quality of the country on the propagation, longevity, and mortality of the inhabitants; but they not unfrequently detect ſome latent evils of a moral or political nature, the noxious effects whereof might otherwiſe long lie concealed even from the moſt vigilant government.

The ground-work of theſe inveſtigations are the liſts of marriages, births, and deaths, on the accurate and careful conſtruction of which the credibility and the practical utility of the calculations and concluſions entirely depend. In Ruſſia ſuch liſts are indeed annually made out and delivered to the proper offices, but they are ſo defective, and the uſe that is made of them ſo confined, that neither the private inquirer nor the adminiſtration have hitherto been able to derive the leaſt utility from them.

The author of this beneficial practice was the emperor Peter the great, who, ſo long ago as the year 1722, (a time when very few countries had as yet adopted that method,) by an article of the ſupplement to his new eccleſiaſtical regulations, ordained that the clergy ſhould deliver to their archhiereys every four months an account of the number of the births and deaths in their

their ſeveral pariſhes. This command was, two years afterwards, again enforced and enlarged, accompanied with preſcribed forms of the manner in which theſe tables were to be drawn up. In the year 1726 an order was iſſued directed to the clergy to tranſmit duplicates of theſe liſts to the ſynod and to the college of war, which departments were to make out from them a general table, and lay it before the monarch. — With the reign of Catharine the ſecond a new epocha began, as in many other matters, ſo alſo as to the political arithmetic of Ruſſia. The late M. Buſching, being then preacher at one of the lutheran churches in St. Peterſburg, began about that period to collect, and in the year 1764 to have printed liſts of the births and deaths of the foreign congregations of that city. About the ſame time, at the inſtigation of profeſſor Schlœtzer, then at St. Peterburg, and the late privy counſellor Taubert, all the congregations of the reſidence were enjoined to prepare liſts of their marriages, births, and deaths, in tables after a ſtated form, and ſend them to the academy of ſciences; like orders were afterwards iſſued to the german governments, directed to the ſeveral conſiſtories to deliver their accounts to the magiſtracy of the place. The laſt remarkable ſtep in this buſineſs was effected by the

the patriotic example of lieutenant-general count Sievers, who in the year 1768, being governor of Novgorod, caused yearly lists to be made out of the betrothings, births, and deaths, in his government, and transmitted them to the senate; whereupon the then general-procureur, prince Vaisemskoy, ordered by writ all the governors throughout the empire to procure similar lists, and send them to the senate *.

This method then has subsisted in Russia upwards of seventy years. The benefit arising from it during this long period has been, however, proportionately but very insignificant, which partly proceeds from the incomplete construction of the tables, and partly from the negligent use that appears to be made of them. All the lists, those of St. Petersburg excepted, have very material chasms; in the deaths of the female sex the age is seldom noted; the diseases and casualties are neither completely inserted nor scientifically classified. The direction of these lists is indeed committed to the clergy; but whether they are made out by them every where with due precision, and whether many particulars, especially in the rubrics of the bills of mortality, may not be unknown even to the priests, is

* Hermann's Beytrage, vol. ii. p. 1.—Schlœtzer von der unschadlichkeit der pokken in Rufsland, und von Rufslands bevolkerung uberhaupt, p. 65 und 144.

liable

liable to more than ordinary doubt. — Notwithſtanding all theſe defects, however, the tables have their proportionate uſe if but induſtriouſly employed, and with attention to practical application. The ſenate receives them according to the governments, which undoubtedly is the beſt method for enabling them to be conſolidated, as the reviſion-liſts are likewiſe compoſed by governments and their circles. The ſynod obtains them according to eparchies, but only of the profeſſors of the ruſſian church; they are in like manner communicated to the college of war, which principally pays attention to the male ſex. The academy receives only the liſts of the city of St. Peterſburg, but theſe probably more complete and accurate than they are elſewhere kept; this department is accordingly the only one that has hitherto made an adequate public uſe of them. The public is indebted to this learned ſociety, beſides the forementioned paper of profeſſor Schlœtzer's, for two excellent diſſertations *, from which, particularly the

* Eſſai ſur les tables des mariages, &c. de St. Péterſbourg, depuis 1764—1780, par M. Krafft. Acta acad. Petrop. ann. 1782, pars i. — Mémoire i. depuis 1781—1785. Nova acta, tom. iv. — Mémoire iii. depuis 1786—1790. Nova acta, tom. viii. — Mémoire ſur les naiſſances, mariages et morts dans quelques provinces et villes de la Ruſſie, par M. Hermann, Nova acta, tom. iv.

former,

former, we ſhall ſelect the neceſſary directions in our inveſtigations on the ſame ſubject.

The liſts which we may here take for the ground to proceed upon, are indeed only of one ſingle year (1793), but they extend over nine eparchies, which, with the government of Riga, the particular tables whereof are now lying before us, comprehend together fifteen governments, which, in regard to their ſituation, their phyſical properties, and their civilization, are extremely various, and therefore preſent very different, and thereby the more remarkable reſults *. According to theſe data we will inquire into the particular relations of fruitfulneſs and mortality, without inſiſting on the premiſes, the dryneſs of which would be weariſome to the generality of readers, and which may be conſulted by the curious in the ſources to which we refer.

* Namely, the governments of Tula, Moſco, Koſtroma, Vologda, Niſhney-Novgorod, Riaſan, Yaroſlaf, Viatka, Perme, Tambof, Penſa, Saratof, Kazan, Simbirſk, and Riga. Six of theſe governments lie in the northern, the reſt in the middle tract, and they all belong to european Ruſſia. According to the forementioned claſſes of population two of them are to be reckoned to the firſt, as many to the ſecond, ſix to the third, four to the fourth, and one to the laſt.

All increment in people depends on the proportion of fertility and mortality, from whence proceeds the ſuperiority of the births to the deaths or the progreſs of population. In order to judge of the FERTILITY of the inhabitants of a country, we ſhould know how many marriages are contracted annually among the whole number of the people there, how many children we may venture to allow to every new marriage, and what proportion the births bear to the living. — The firſt queſtion is only to be anſwered indefinitely in general terms, it being well known that in cities and towns fewer people marry than in the country. In the ſaid fifteen governments the proportion of the marriages to the living was on an average as 1 to 92, that is, among 92 perſons one marriage was contracted or of 46 people one married. This proportion is extremely favourable to population; in Sweden, for example, it is computed that during a period of fourteen years among 110, in Denmark among 115, and in Norway even among 130 perſons, only one marriage takes place. In the cities and great towns of the empire naturally it cannot be ſo advantageous, as there the introduction of luxury and the diſproportion of the two ſexes are difficulties in the way

way of marriage; thus at St. Peterſburg of 70 perſons annually one marries.

To 100 new-contracted marriages, we are to reckon, according to our liſts, upon an average 362 children. This is about the mean proportion admitted for the whole country, where it is uſual to reckon 4 children to a marriage *. This fertility, however, is not very great: in Sweden, for example, 100 marriages yield 410, in the pruſſian territories 468, in Sileſia 503 children. Even in certain diſtricts and towns of the ruſſian empire this proportion is more favourable to population: in St. Peterſburg, for inſtance, to 100 marriages are computed 429 children.

The proportion of the births to the living is in general as 1 to 26, or of 26 living perſons one is born. In large towns this proportion is admitted as 1 to 30, in ſmaller as 1 to 24, and in the country as 1 to 22; the mean proportion is, therefore, as 1 to 27, and it is ſeen how very near the reſult of our liſts comes to it. On the whole this fertility is conſiderable enough, as it is rarely found to be greater in large ſtates. In the pruſſian, for example, upon an average of eleven years the ſame proportion holds good; whereas in Sileſia and ſome pro-

* Frank's Syſtem der mediziniſchen Polizey, vol. i. p. 396.

vinces of Holland and France it is by far more advantageous *. — If we compute for the whole maſs of people throughout the ruſſian empire, that of 26 living perſons one is born; it follows, that, of the 36 millions of inhabitants annually about 1,385,000 perſons are born.

The general agreement of the birth-liſts of all countries has farther ſhewn, that of every great number of children more boys are born than girls, in the proportion of 105 to 100. Our liſts likewiſe confirm this intereſting obſervation, but they yield a far more ſenſible proportion: according to them 100 girls are born to 122 boys. This reſult ſeems to corroborate the hypotheſis of the academician Hermann, that the ſurplus of the new-born boys is the largeſt preciſely in the beſt and moſt fertile provinces of the ruſſian empire; and that, conſequently, climate, good circumſtances, and luxury, muſt have a remarkable influence on the procreation of boys. — If the above proportion be applicable to the whole maſs of people, it will follow, that Ruſſia, in the annual number of its births, has 761,000 boys and only 624,000 girls.

The quantum of MORTALITY ariſes from the proportion of the deaths to the living; and this by our liſts is as 1 to 58; a proportion which in all

* Suſſmilch's gottl. ordnung, part i. ſect. 116.

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the countries of Europe is hitherto without example, and would juſtify the moſt extraordinary expectations in favour of the progreſs of population, if the credibility of the bills of mortality could be placed out of doubt. As ſo ſmall a mortality, however, militates ſo much againſt common experience, we may reaſonably venture to bring them under ſuſpicion. In the pruſſian ſtates one annually dies out of 32 living, in Denmark one out of 37, in Norway one out of 48; is it eaſily conceivable that this laſt uncommonly favourable proportion could be everywhere ſo greatly exceeded in an empire of ſuch a prodigious extent as Ruſſia, and that in the greateſt diverſities of ſoil, climate, way of life, and even the national conſtitution of its inhabitants? From theſe and ſeveral other conſiderations it is probable that the bills of mortality are not ſo accurately and fully made out as the liſts of births; in theſe there is ſcarcely the omiſſion of any newborn child, as it is entered in the baptiſmal regiſter: but how many people, and particularly children, are buried in the country without any prieſtly ceremonies, and how great the number of thoſe who die in wars, on ſea-voyages, in hoſpitals, and in priſons *, or loſe their

* That the laſt, notwithſtanding the imperial orders, have ſtill no article allotted to them in the bills of mortality

their lives by means unknown, or avoid the bills of mortality of their parish by emigration. — Notwithstanding this, the agreement of all the mortality-tables of so many years and such a variety of districts is a curious circumstance; and from what we are able to deduce from the result of them in behalf of the foregoing observations, it appears undeniable that the mortality in Russia, as well as in other northern countries must be proportionately smaller than the political arithmetic in general is wont to admit. In confirmation of this assertion we may appeal to the bills of mortality of St. Petersburg, the credibility whereof is attested by the complete harmony of their results with the laws of nature, and has been competently evinced by the learned and sagacious investigations of the academician Krafft. From these lists it appears

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lity, may be seen in several passages of the before-mentioned tract of professor Krafft. Il seroit à désirer (says he in the second memoir, Nova acta, tom. iv. p. 205) pour le bien de l'humanité, que les tables continssent un registre des morts arrivées dans les hôpitaux et les prisons, et surtout un exposé des genres des maladies; l'ordre impérial en fait une expresse mention. And in the third: (Nova acta, tom. viii. p. 255.) La publicité à l'égard des nombres annuells des morts arrivées dans les maisons des enfans trouvés, dans les hôpitaux et les prisons intéresse trop l'humanité pour ne pas désirer, aussi l'ordre impérial en fait, je le repète, une expresse mention.

that

that the proportion of the dead to the living, in three ſucceſſive periods, compriſing the interval from 1764 to 1790, was as 1 to 35, as 1 to 37, and in the laſt period, when epidemical diſeaſes operated, as 1 to 29. The two firſt proportions are unparalleled for a city ſo large, populous, and luxurious, as it is uſual to admit, in general, for the mortality of the open country only $\frac{1}{38}$, and as it has been ſhewn that in great cities, ex. gr. in London and Rome, it amounts to $\frac{1}{24}$ *. — Without, therefore, pretending to decide in this matter, we will adhere to the reſult of our liſts, according to which the whole mortality carries off yearly 623,000 perſons.

The proportion of the deaths of males to thoſe of females is as 105 to 100; the ruſſian empire, therefore, loſes annually of the former 320,000, and of the latter only 303,000 perſons. On comparing this ſtatement with the proportion of the births of the two ſexes, it appears as though in moſt parts of the ruſſian empire not ſo many perſons of the male ſex proportionately die as boys are born, and that conſequently in many provinces there muſt be a conſiderable ſurplus of males to females. This remark has been actually verified in parti-

* Suſſmilch's gottl. ordnung, part i. ſect. 35.

cular governments by enumerations *, and, if it could be proved of the reſt likewiſe, would at the ſame time afford a proof (without making a queſtion of decorum) that Ruſſia is the laſt country in the world that could favour mohammedaniſm. But it is probable, that the inferior mortality of the male ſex, at leaſt in ſo ſtriking a proportion, is not in the nature of the caſe, but only appears to be ſo in the bills of mortality, as that ſex is principally expoſed to thoſe kinds of death which have a rubric in the liſts.

* According to ſtatements which are produced in the "Statiſtiſche ueberſicht des ruſſiſchen reichs," there are in the governments of

	Males.	Females.
St. Peterſburg - - -	315,431	262,386
Vyborg - - - - - -	89,637	87,167
Kharkof - - - - - -	402,434	394,374
Kaluga - - - - - -	393,108	377,739
Tambof - - - - - -	443,660	435,904, &c.

On the other hand, however, there are ſeveral governments in which the female ſex is the moſt numerous.

	Males.	Females.
Olonetz - - - - - -	111,681	115,285
Riga - - - - - - -	262,853	264,029
Reval - - - - - - -	97,155	99,130
Yaroſlaf - - - - - -	373,296	393,143
Moſco (excl. of the capital) - - - - -	417,872	394,374, &c.

As the tables on which these calculations are grounded express neither the age nor the diseases of the deceased, many important results cannot be obtained which otherwise might be drawn from these proportions. To supply, however, in some sort this defect, we will at least follow the bills of mortality of St. Petersburg, the results whereof may perhaps be applicable, with due restrictions, to the empire at large.

Of 1000 new-born children in St. Petersburg about 5 are still-born; a proportion so small as not to be paralleled any where. The veracity of the lists cannot well be called in question, as the fact can be proved by other means; and the proportion of the still-born children of both sexes exactly tallies with that of other countries: there are here, as well as almost every where, of 1000 boys 9 still-born, but of the same number of girls only 5. These lists moreover shew, that, among the foreigners settled in St. Petersburg, of 1000 births 25 are still-born, and therefore five times more than among the Russians. — With far better reason may this favourable appearance be explained from the robust constitution of the russian mothers and the frequent use of the hot baths. Both nature and their manner of life are so propitious to the russian-women, that of 1000 lying-in only 7 die, whereas

of

of the ſame number of foreigners in Peterſburg 15 loſe their lives in child-bed.

If we admit this proportion for the whole amount of births in the ruſſian empire, (and with what ſhew of reaſon could it be affirmed that it muſt fare worſe with people in the country and in ſmall towns?) then the advantage is plain that the population receives from the vigour and happy organization of the female ſex. Of the ſum total of 1,385,000 births, according to this proportion, only 6920 are ſtill-born children; but if the proportion were as with the foreigners at St. Peterſburg, then would the number of them amount to 34,600; conſequently the country would loſe upwards of 27,000 more citizens, at their very entrance into the world, than probably its loſs amounts to by the preſent proportion.

At St. Peterſburg of 1000 children on an average 184 die in the firſt year of their age. This mortality likewiſe is extremely ſmall for ſo large a city: in Berlin, for inſtance, in this period 276 die, in London 320, and even for the open country, the deaths are generally reckoned at not fewer than 211. If this proportion be ſo favourable in the reſidence, it muſt be far more advantageous in the provinces, where the mothers ſuckle their children; we ſhall therefore probably not fall into an error, if we apply it in general

general to the whole population. The result therefrom would be, that Ruſſia, of the whole yearly amount of her births, loſes 255,000 in the firſt year of their age.

Of 1000 children that are one year old, 809 attain to their fifteenth year; but 191 die during that period of life. The loſs to the ſtate amounts in the whole therefore to about 216,000 children; and at the end of the fifteenth year it has ſtill 914,000 youths and girls remaining, who enter on their prime of life with full vigour.

The greater however the hopes which ſo extraordinarily great a vitality may juſtify, ſo much the more unexpected is the lamentable reſult produced by the ſucceeding period of life. From the twentieth to the ſixtieth year there die in St. Peterſburg of 1000 perſons 817; of 1000 perſons at the age of twenty conſequently no more than 183 can cheriſh the hope of reaching to ſo ſhort a term. Therefore, during this period of an equal number there die 273 more perſons than generally in other countries, and 97 more than even in London, which exceeds all great cities in the number of its deaths *. So ſtriking and remarkable a phænomenon as this, makes it incumbent upon us to endeavour to trace out its cauſe.

* Suſſmilch, tom. ii. p. 348.

The

The ſource of this tremendous mortality cannot poſſibly be in nature, as it ſuddenly appears after an extraordinarily great vitality. If the bodily conſtitution of the people, or the phyſical quality of the country had any influence on it, its effects would be principally ſeen in the tender period of life which is every where liable to a greater mortality; but here exactly the reverſe appears among the Ruſſians, as we have made apparent by drawing compariſons with other countries. The ſource of the evil then muſt be non-natural; it muſt be in the manner of living. The bills of mortality, alas! leave no room to doubt it; they teach us, that this great mortality chiefly relates to the male ſex, and that it is principally occaſioned by fevers and conſumptions, that is, by diſeaſes brought on by the intemperate uſe of ſtrong liquors.

It is to brandy then that we muſt lay all the blame of this terrible effect. In order to ſimplify in numbers the loſs ſuſtained by the country in its human-capital through the means of this pernicious liquor, let us admit, that the mortality from the fifteenth to the twentieth year, obſerves the ſame proportion which holds good in general from the birth to the fifteenth year; at the end of the twentieth year then the total of the deaths amounts to 628,000, and the ſtate retains ſtill

757,000

757,000 young citizens remaining, which may become uſeful members of ſociety from that period by their induſtry and by the propagation of their ſpecies. Of this noble capital, in the moſt valuable period of life not leſs than 618,000 individuals periſh, and of the whole ſum of all the births at the concluſion of the ſixtieth year only 139,000 perſons remain, who from their temperance or greater ſtrength of conſtitution may hope to attain to a more advanced age. If, on the other hand, the mortality during this period obſerved the ſame proportion which it uſually does in other countries, then would the loſs at the end of it amount only to 412,000 perſons, and conſequently 206,000 more perſons ſixty years old would be ſtill alive, who at preſent by their intemperance have been prematurely carried off.

After this remark we naturally can expect only a ſmall number of aged people. In St. Peterſburg of 1000 births no more than 3 attain the age of ninety; whereas, in the ordinary courſe of nature, 9 ought to arrive at that honourable term. If this proportion may be applied to the whole, then, of all the births, at the end of the ninetieth year only 4200 would be left, of whom however ſeveral might entertain the hope of reaching

reaching a very advanced age. — From our lists it appears that one out of 85 deaths had lived more than a hundred years; three out of that number were so fortunate as to extend their life to 120 years.

The rubric of diseases is entirely omitted in these bills of mortality; and even in those of St. Petersburg it is so incomplete and erroneous, that the academical commentary upon it can only produce very unsatisfactory results. It is much to be wished that the lists were improved in this respect. An accurate and well-classified statement of the diseases of all the departed in the various regions of so vast an empire would furnish materials for a medical topography, which, from the great diversity of the soil and climate and the nations themselves must prove extremely important to the natural history of mankind; and by the comparison of the several data with each other and with the general laws of nature, might point out to government the best methods to be adopted for preserving its people. — As these ideas, however, are at present only pious wishes, we will at least communicate the scanty harvest we have been able to reap from this profitable but hitherto so little cultivated a field.

The greatest mortality at St. Petersburg is caused by the three following classes of disease: fever,

fever, pleuriſy, and conſumption. They attack the male ſex more frequently than the female, and together carry off the half of all that die. As theſe diſeaſes can hardly be aſcribed to local circumſtances, but moſt probably take their riſe from the way of living of the great maſs of people, we may ſuppoſe their fatal effects to be in a like proportion in other parts and in entire provinces. — On the other hand the diſeaſes of children, e. gr. convulſions, teeth, ſmall-pox, meaſles, are in St. Peterſburg (and probably alſo in the greater part of Ruſſia) far leſs fatal than elſewhere. Convulſions, which commit the moſt ravages, carry off the 24th part of all the births; but in other countries they are far more deſtructive. — Before the introduction of inoculation the natural ſmall-pox killed $\frac{1}{11}$ of all that were born; ſince that epocha $\frac{1}{38}$. From this remark ariſe two weighty conſequences: One, that this formidable diſeaſe is not ſo malignant in Ruſſia as in other countries, where on an average it carries off $\frac{1}{14}$ of the births *;

and,

* The queſtion whether the ſmall-pox be proportionably more innoxious in Ruſſia than in other countries, has given riſe to two very intereſting writings we ſhall more than once have occaſion to quote: profeſſor Schlœtzer's before-mentioned treatiſe on the innoxiouſneſs of the ſmall-pox in Ruſſia, and

and, ſecondly, that the beneficial practice of inoculation, even in the reſidence, is by no means

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and paſtor Grot's ſupplement to his ſermons on inoculation, "On the fatal effects of the ſmall-pox in St. Peterſburg, as relative to the queſtion concerning the innoxiouſneſs of that diſorder in Ruſſia." Schlœtzer, who declares for the affirmative, ſupports his argument on the ten monthly liſts of deaths at St. Peterſburg for the year 1764, and on the declaration of ſome ſtudents who belong to the houſes in various parts of Ruſſia. This teſtimony, as well as the aſſertion itſelf, Grot undertakes to refute; and in fact truth ſeems to incline to his ſide. At leaſt among all the nomadic nations of the ruſſian empire, the ſmall-pox, according to the moſt credible evidences, are incomparably more fatal than in the european ſtates. Their prevalence indeed is not continual; but, when they once begin any where to rage, their ravages are the more dreadful. They obſerve periods, returning after ten, twenty, or thirty years; but their leſs frequent appearance has no influence to the diminution of their mortality. All that the population ſeems to gain in any of theſe intervals, is perhaps loſt to a double amount by the havoc committed by the contagion at its return. The eaſy acceſs which inoculation found among the ſiberian nations, affords a freſh probable argument in behalf of the great mortality of the ſmall-pox there. Nothing but great and almoſt inevitable danger could have prompted unenlightened nomades in ſuch numerous multitudes to the uſe of a remedy, which on one ſide was ſo ſtrongly recommended to them by the natural inſtinct of ſelf-preſervation; and on the other ſide promiſed a ſafeguard to the lives of their children not to be expected from any other quarter. — The mortality

means general, becauſe in that caſe the mortality muſt have greatly diminiſhed, as by univerſal experience we find that of the inoculated only three die out of 1000.

Laſtly, from the ſeveral proportions we have now adduced of the fertility and mortality, is ſeen the ratio of the progreſs of population, or the ſpace of time requiſite for the maſs of the people to double itſelf. This ratio is apparent both from the proportion of the general fertility

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mortality of the ſmallpox, continues Grot in his diſſertations, to the native Ruſſians may perhaps be leſs, but perhaps alſo greater. To adopt as general the proportion admitted from the tables of St. Peterſburg, is too hazardous. How eaſily may cauſes unknown to us, ariſing either from the difference of climate, of the atmoſphere, of the weather, of bodily frame, or are entirely independent on them, give the preponderance to one ſide or the other! — The conſentaneous experiences of whole countries and nations are in favour of the ordinary degree of their mortality, as well as the frequent and ſudden converſion of the mild into the malignant ſort, their no leſs frequent and ſudden propagation, the danger which is even connected with the mode of their infection, and is only to be mitigated by inoculation, and the general laws of mortality in regard to each particular diſeaſe. An inferior mortality is an exception; and ſo long as this is not ſhewn by numbers, ſo long ſhall we have only uncertain conjectures in behalf of an appearance which deviates ſo much from the ordinary courſe of nature." Sermons on inoculation of the ſmallpox, p. 431.

and mortality to the whole number of the living, and from the surplus of the births to the deaths. On this matter the lists before us, after what has been premised, yield the following result:

The ratio of the general fertility is $\frac{1}{28}$; consequently the number of the annual births out of 36 millions amounts to - - - - - -	1,385,000
The ratio of the general mortality is $\frac{1}{58}$; consequently the number of the annual deaths out of 36 millions amounts to - - - - -	623,000
The surplus of the births, or the yearly increase of the population, is therefore - - - - - - - -	762,000

Accordingly the proportion of the births to the deaths is as 225 to 100; or of 100 that are born, 44 or 45 die. The population therefore is annually increased by about $\frac{1}{49}$, or is doubled within 49 years.

This astonishing increase of the population may perhaps excite some doubt as to the correctness of the lists, for the credibility whereof indeed we cannot vouch; but however extraordinary such a rapid duplication may appear, yet it is not entirely without example. If so acute and honest an inquisitor as Franklin estimates the period for this duplication in the united provinces

vinces of America at 25 years, why ſhould not the ruſſian empire, with the like and greater natural advantages, poſſeſs half as much tendency to the increaſe of its population? Were we even to give all poſſible weight to the arguments that have above been brought againſt the validity of the bills of mortality, and reduce the ſurplus of the births to half a million; ſtill the reſult will far exceed the experiments that have been made in the generality of european countries on the increaſe of population.

If theſe obſervations prove not unwelcome to the philoſophical inquirer; if they afford government any ſuggeſtions on the moſt important of all political concerns: it is then worth while to complete the means for rendering theſe uſeful calculations practicable. — "Well-made liſts "of births and deaths," ſays the author of the learned tract to which we are indebted for ſeveral of the intereſting ſtatements in this Section *, "preſent to us the influence of phyſical and poli- "tical circumſtances on the well-being of the "people, in plain arithmetical expreſſion; they "are a ſort of political thermometer to the rulers "of ſtates, pointing out to them the degree,

* Krafft, Mémoire i. Acta Petropolitana for the year 1782, part i. p. 65.

" even the loweſt, of the declination of the pro-
" ſperity of their people; they are the incor-
" ruptible organ, which reduces the public
" exigencies to language, and conſequently
" points out to ſovereigns the ſureſt means of
" diffuſing content and happineſs over millions
" of mankind. But, great as their utility is
" when they bear the ſtamp of truth, ſo dan-
" gerous are they when they deviate from that
" ſtandard, or are falſified by impoſture to miſlead
" the judgment of well-meaning princes!"

SECTION II.

Public Inſtitutions for the Preſervation and Increaſe of the Population.

HAVING ſeen how benignly the increaſe of the ſtock of people is provided for by Nature, it is now time to inquire how far the government has been attentive to this important object.

The means which the ſtate may employ to this end are of two kinds: either poſitive, whereby the population is actually, directly, or mediately augmented; or negative, by which depopulation is prevented.

How

How great ſoever the activity may be with which Nature every where operates to the increaſe of mankind, not leſs deſtructive are the impediments to her grand and maternal views. But few of our ſpecies attain to that period of life which Nature has aſſigned, not to individuals, but to the whole human race: one half of mankind wither in their early bloom. — According to the calculations which we have juſt laid before our readers, it is more than probable that the ruſſian empire loſes of the annual growth of its population above 628,000 of all that are born before they reach their twentieth year, of whom a very great part fall innocent victims to ignorance, to ſuperſtition, to negligence, and to the moral depravity of their parents and nurſes. Were it poſſible only in ſome degree to ſtop the ſources of this dreadful loſs, and only to reſcue the twentieth part of this ſlaughtered generation, the ſtate would receive a pure gain every year of more than 31,000 human beings, which would be preciſely as if it were enriched by 31,000 new citizens.

But, it will be aſked, is it not Nature herſelf who allots to the greater part of the race of men ſo ſhort a term, and deſtroys the half of her own work ere it has reached maturity? — Certainly Nature, for wiſe and good purpoſes, has made

the firſt period of human life dependent on the nurſing and care of others, and the whole of its phyſical exiſtence on a thouſand accidental circumſtances; but no leſs certain is it, that man is his own deſtroyer, and that the phyſical and moral corruption of large ſocieties begets numberleſs new evils, the origin whereof can never be charged on Nature. If, for example, by well-atteſted obſervations, of 1000 children nouriſhed by their mothers, only 300 die; but of juſt the ſame number who are ſuckled by nurſes 500 are a prey to death: — if the natural ſmallpox kill the 7th child, while of the inoculated only 3 out of 1000 loſe their lives: — if London formerly loſt only a tenth of its births by convulſions; but at preſent, ſince it is become larger, more opulent and more luxurious, its loſs is riſen to three tenths: — if in Ruſſia annually 200,000 grown perſons are brought prematurely into the bills of mortality by the immoderate uſe of ſtrong liquors: this ſurely is not the fault of Nature, who neither teaches us to keep nurſes nor to drink brandy, and who, if we follow her ſimple and beneficent dictates, renders even mortal diſtempers innoxious.

Unqueſtionable as it is that the generality of phyſical evils proceed from man himſelf, not leſs ſo is it that he has the eradication or the mitiga-

tion

tion of them in his own power. The care of his own preſervation is implanted as an inſtinct in the breaſt of each individual, which only needs ſome underſtanding and conduct in order to reach its end: in civil ſociety the care for the preſervation of all is a duty incumbent on the ſtate *, and which requires to be ſupported with the greater energy the more its ſtrength and welfare are dependent on that care. No one will make it a matter of doubt, that a wiſe and vigilant government poſſeſſes great and powerful means to check the mortality of its ſubjects; and of what may be effected in this regard by public inſtitutions, hiſtory affords us inſtructive and ſtriking examples. Famine, peſtilence, leproſy, and ſmallpox have formerly depopulated whole provinces; but corn-magazines, lazarets, and inoculation-houſes have gradually ſet bounds to their devaſtations; and, if theſe horrible calamities ſtill at times rage in other quarters of the world, yet the citizen of Europe is ſecured from their farther diſſemination.

From the following repreſentation it will appear how much in Ruſſia the government has hitherto done in this important part of public

* Inſtruction of Catharine II. to the commiſſion for framing a code of laws, cap. xii. ſect. 267.

concern. A country in which moſt of the inſtitutions of this kind are of a new creation, and where the people live diſperſed over a monſtrous ſurface, great difficulties naturally preſent themſelves to the proviſions that may be undertaken for preſerving the numbers and the health of the inhabitants. This remark, which perhaps to ſome readers will not appear ſuperfluous, will place us in the true point of view, for forming an impartial judgment on the eſtabliſhments and meaſures, which are at preſent the object of our attention *.

Medicine, as a ſcience, was not domeſticated in Ruſſia till the commencement of the preſent century. For though before that period foreign phyſicians were individually maintained at the court of the tzars; yet public medical inſtitutions were unknown to the empire. Peter the great firſt called expert phyſicians and ſurgeons, erected hoſpitals and endowed a MEDICAL CHANCERY or faculty, which had the ſuperviſal of

* Many of theſe particulars are from a manuſcript written by the late baron Aſch, ſenior member of the medical college, and another by Dr. Elliſen; but for the friendly communication of which it would have been almoſt impoſſible to have drawn up any account of theſe matters, as little or nothing has hitherto been publiſhed in Ruſſia on what may be called medical ſtatiſtics.

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the whole ſtate of medicine, committing to it the care of its foundation and enlargement. The favourite phyſician of that emperor was Blumentroſt, a German, born at Moſco, who, afterwards, as preſident of the academy of ſciences, was alſo director of the medical faculty, and as well under that ſovereign as the two following enjoyed the place of an archiater. With him Peter the great had another phyſician, Dr. Areſkine, of Scotland, but who was thought, under cover of this poſt, to act miniſterially as agent from the ſcottiſh jacobites. — During the reign of the empreſs Anna, beſides theſe two phyſicians, Kruger and Fiſcher, with the famous Erneſt Stahl, were invited from Berlin to St. Peterſburg, who, however, after a ſhort ſtay, quitted the reſidence and returned to Berlin. — Elizabeth conferred the poſt of archiater on the phyſician Leſtock ſo celebrated in the hiſtory of her reign; and about the ſame time Ribeiro Sanchez came to Ruſſia, on whoſe recommendation alſo Boerhaave was invited thither. Panaiota Kondoidi, from the iſland of Corfu, was then preſident of the medical chancery, a man of talents and great ſagacity, who firſt publiſhed the regulation of the college of medicine.

On the death of Kondoidi in the year 1760, the direction of the medicine chancery was committed

mitted to three of the moſt eminent phyſicians, whoſe function, however, ſhortly afterwards became extinct, in conſequence of the erection by Catharine II. in 1763 of the IMPERIAL MEDICAL COLLEGE, whoſe foundation forms a new and important epocha in the hiſtory of phyſic in Ruſſia *.

Much has been done ſince the time of Peter the great to advance the knowledge of the healing art by the founding of hoſpitals, eſtabliſhing of apothekes, inviting of foreign phyſicians, &c.; but the mode of proceeding has been defective, and not conducted on any regular plan. The ſuperviſal of the whole ſtate of phyſic was one while committed to the chancery, then to one ſole chief, and it rarely happened that one and the ſame direction continued long enough to produce any laſting benefit, as it was the uniform practice of the ſucceſſor to deſtroy what the former had been doing. It was owing to this ſtate of things that Ruſſia, during a ſpace of more than ſixty years, has been able to produce from the nation but very few ſkilful phyſicians and ſurgeons, and that amongſt ſeveral expert and deſerving foreigners it has been

* Ukaſe of the 12th of November 1763, relating to the founding of the medic. imp. coll.

plagued

plagued with ſo many half-learned and ignorant phyſicians; beſides, in the interior and remoter provinces there was ſtill a great want of proper medical inſtitutions.

In order to remedy this defect, and put the whole police-of-health, which forms ſo important and eſſential a branch of the general adminiſtration, under one ſole, powerful, and effective direction, Catharine created the medical imperial college, delivering to it at the ſame time a definite and expreſs inſtruction. "Two things," ſays this memorial, "the college are to make their prin-"cipal object: to preſerve the people of the "empire by the arts of medicine, to educate "ruſſian doctors, ſurgeons, operators, and apo-"thecaries, and in the next place to put the "apothekes and their œconomy on a good "footing *." — The plan of the preſent work being too confined to allow of a greater prolixity in regard to the methods it was found neceſſary to adopt for the attainment of theſe views, we can only here give a very general ſketch of the diligence and the preſent ſtate of this department.

To the college-eſtabliſhment belong, beſides the director in chief and the preſidents, (which places are uſually filled by perſons of elevated

* Inſtruction of the college and its members.

rank,)

rank) four doctors as members, who are accounted of the fixth clafs, or have the rank of college-counfellors, of whom one has the care of the correfpondence as the learned fecretary; farther, a chief-furgeon, who belongs to the feventh, an operator and an apothecary, belonging to the eighth clafs. Befides, they have feveral other fecretaries, tranflators, and writers appointed by themfelves. In connection with the college is the œconomical chancery and the revifion-office, which however have neither feat nor voice in the college. — The perfonal falaries altogether amount to the yearly fum of 19,150 rubles.

This college has a department in Mofco, whofe prefident for the time being is city-phyfician, and which coffs annually in falaries 4000 rubles.

The revenue of the college arifes principally from the three following articles: 1. A per centage on the pay of all civil and military officers, who, in return, (but not their families,) are attented by phyficians and provided with medicines gratis. 2. The profit on the fale of medicines to the public. This part of their income, however, is conftantly declining by the competition of private apothekes. 3. Moreover, the college

college receives annually an addition of 470,000 rubles, whereof 120,000 are paid out of the imperial treaſury *.

The diſburſements for the college-eſtabliſhments and its dependences, but without the governments, phyſicians, and hoſpitals, amount annually to 114,760 rubles.

The ſphere of this imperial college extends over the whole body of phyſic, and all medical perſons throughout, excepting only the medical eſtabliſhment of the court. It is its duty to ſee that all the governments and circles are provided with the requiſite phyſicians, ſurgeons, and apothecaries according to the imperial precept; it watches over the obſervance of the duties of every individual under its direction, and has inherently the power to reward and to puniſh. It has the inſpection over the management of the apothekes belonging to the crown, over the hoſpitals and medical ſeminaries of education. It examines all phyſicians, ſurgeons, and operators before they can be permitted to practice in the empire, from which even academical teſtimonies and degrees will not exempt, and publiſhes in the Gazette the names of the

* Ukaſe of June 2, 1794. — In the years 1794 and 1795 the arrears due to it from the college of war and the admiralty were liquidated by a ſum of 530,000 rubles.

perſons

perſons to whom that permiſſion is granted. It is competent to confer the degree of doctor in medicine. It has to do in general with whatever belongs to the medical ſyſtem, and its correlative inſtitutions. Accordingly it holds a regular correſpondence with all the provinces of the empire, for obtaining information concerning the ſtate of the national health. On learning that ſome infectious diſtemper has anywhere made its appearance, it loſes no time in adopting the proper means for ſtopping its progreſs. Laſtly, it attends to the improvement of the healing art in general; and to this end collects the caſes tranſmitted by the ſeveral phyſicians of the empire, and publiſhes them from time to time in the latin language. — The medical department in Moſco co-operates with it to theſe purpoſes only with the limitation that it is dependent on the college, and can neither appoint phyſicians nor prohibit them from practiſing.

The ſphere of action of the medical college being ſo important and ſo extenſive, it cannot be expected that we ſhould here give the hiſtory of it from its foundation. We ſhall content ourſelves with producing a few inſtances of the manner in which this learned eſtabliſhment has endeavoured to accompliſh the deſign of its erection.

They have publiſhed a Pharmacopœa Roſſica, which firſt appeared in the year 1778; regulations concerning apothecaries, midwives, with the fees that are to be taken by them as well as by phyſicians and ſurgeons, in 1789, in latin, ruſs, and german. — The college in 1765 employed for the firſt time the imperial authority of creating doctors, by conferring their diploma on the chevalier Orræus, who had ſtudied in Konigſberg, but before he could be promoted was called home. They made it their principal buſineſs to form young phyſicians and ſurgeons from the natives, the want of whom was very ſenſibly felt in the interior provinces, and by encouragements and rewards brought out ſeveral good medical tranſlations as well as original writings. — For ſupplying the army, the navy, and the hoſpitals with chirurgical inſtruments, the college erected three workſhops, in St. Peterſburg, Moſco, and Tobolſk, of which the firſt is the beſt. As the college ſpares no expences for cauſing ruſſian pupils to be inſtructed by the moſt ſkilful foreign artiſts that can be procured, the empire is now in poſſeſſion of a ſufficient number of its own inſtrument-makers, whoſe work is but little inferior to the beſt of what comes from abroad. The ſalaries paid at theſe ſhops amount annually in St. Peterſburg

terſburg to 3000, and at Moſco to 1700 rubles; the particular inſpection over the former is committed to an operator, who is a member of the college and a native Ruſſian. — In the year 1795 the college erected its own printing-office with a type-foundery adjoining, which has already publiſhed ſeveral works, the typographical neatneſs whereof does honour to the overſeer. At the printing-office a very expert engraver is alſo maintained. — Of the other concerns of the college, and the advancement of the art of phyſic in Ruſſia, mention will occaſionally be made as we proceed.

Among the principal inſtitutions depending on the medical college is the town-phyſicate, in the capital, the reſidence, and the chief towns, whoſe peculiar office it is to viſit monthly the private apothekes. — The crown-apothekes are managed entirely on the account of the crown. The imperial chief-apothekes at Peterſburg and Moſco provide all the reſt with materials, and deliver the neceſſary medicines to all the public inſtitutions, the military hoſpitals, &c. All officers, civil and military, receive for their own perſons, free of expence, what they want from the crown-apothekes, in conſideration of the fore-mentioned deduction from their pay; the reſt of the public pay according to the rates preſcribed.

preſcribed. For a long time the crown-apothekes were the only ones in being; but during the reign of Catharine II. the number of private apothekes in the reſidence, and ſome of the government-towns have ſo much increaſed, that the former have but few cuſtomers from the public. All, even foreign medicines, are not allowed to be ſent out from any of the apothekes otherwiſe than ſealed, and with a label written after a preſcribed form. — St. Peterſburg has at preſent three chief and four collateral apothekes of the crown, with ten private apothekes. The yearly ſalaries at the former amount to 6750 rubles. The apothecary-garden of the medical college has adjoining to it a botanical garden, and contains alſo the chemical laboratory for the preparation of the ſeveral medicines in the groſs. Both eſtabliſhments coſt annually 7000 rubles.

From this brief account of the medical college and its operation, we will proceed to deſcribe the ſanity-inſtitutions connected with it, and which may be properly divided into two claſſes, the civil and the military.

Ever ſince the time of Peter the great there have been hoſpitals for the army, but medical eſtabliſhments for the citizens in towns and the country people were not thought of. The pro-

digious compaſs of ſuch an undertaking, in a country of ſuch an extent, with difficulties and expence that muſt neceſſarily attend it, ariſing from the great diſtance of the towns, the want of phyſicians, and even the manners and prejudices of the people, ſeemed even to render the propoſal impracticable. It was reſerved for the reign of Catharine II. in this matter too to ſet an example which will never be forgotten in the annals of ruſſian hiſtory. In the year 1763, when the inſtruction for the medical college was laid before her for her to ſign, ſhe wrote with her own hand the following words to the ſeventh paragraph: "The college muſt likewiſe not for-"get to draw up plans in what manner hoſpi-"tals are to be ſet up in the provinces, and to "make repreſentations to us on the ſubject." Shortly after ſhe iſſued the order for improving the liſts of births and deaths, and to tranſmit them to the ſenate and to the academy of ſciences. From ſeveral paſſages in the inſtruction to the commiſſion for framing a code of laws, it appears that a concern for the public health inceſſantly occupied her active mind. In the year 1775 appeared the ordinance for new-modelling the governments; and, what till then had been thought ſcarcely poſſible, or could only have been conſidered as a ſpeculation which might

might perhaps be realized at ſome very diſtant period, Ruſſia received a national diſpenſary, extending to all the parts of this great empire, and over every claſs of its inhabitants, not excepting the moſt indigent and helpleſs.

By this ordinance * every government, in each of its circles, muſt have a phyſician and ſurgeon for the town and the circle or diſtrict, two aſſiſtant ſurgeons, and two pupils. According to the eſtabliſhment of the government of Tver, which is annexed to the ordinance, the doctor is to have 300, the ſurgeon 140, the aſſiſtant 60, and the pupil 30 rubles, as their pay, which for all the eleven circles of that government makes 6820 rubles. The pay, however, is not alike in all the governments, and particularly in the remoter ones it is much higher. Theſe medical perſons are moreover allowed to accept of fees from the private patients to whom they are called.

The difficulty in introducing the new medical conſtitution was how to obtain a ſufficient number of expert phyſicians and ſurgeons; but even this deficiency was remedied by Catharine's bounty. Many of thoſe who had aſſembled in the great towns of the empire, now diſtributed

* Ordinance relating to the governments, chap. iii. ſect. 70.

themſelves about the provinces, where, with the advantage of a ſettled pay, they could lay their account in receiving a conſiderable income from their private practice, and live proportionately much cheaper; in order to complete their number, Dr. Zimmermann, of Hanover, had a commiſſion to engage by way of contract phyſicians of Germany of well-founded reputation and practical experience. A number of uſeful and able foreigners accepted of this invitation, and ſettled, for the moſt part on very advantageous terms, in the ruſſian ſtates. The generality of them, beſides the expences of their journey, had an appointment of 800 rubles per ann. and the place of their abode was left to their own option; at the ſame time they were all diſpenſed from the neceſſity of ſubmitting to the examination of the medical college, which otherwiſe every phyſician muſt undergo previous to his ſettling in Ruſſia. — To this time, however, there are not ſo many phyſicians as are requiſite for all the governments; but their number is increaſing every year, and in the mean time the preſent ones ſupply circles which are not yet occupied. The defect of ſurgeons is entirely removed in moſt of the governments; the medical college have, as far as has been poſſible, taken care in all places to provide ſkilful midwives.

In

In each government there is likewiſe a college of general proviſion, which, beſides ſeveral other duties, is entruſted with the erection and inſpection of the hoſpitals and infirmaries of the town *. Theſe are inſtituted for a determinate number of patients (about 20 or 30) and may not admit any more. They are intended for the poor and neceſſitous, who are cured and attended free of all expence; but whenever there are vacancies, other patients and gentlemen's ſervants are taken in; theſe are allowed ſeparate beds, but pay a very moderate ſum for their cure. — Beſides theſe infirmaries the college of general proviſion maintains particular houſes for incurable patients who have no ſupport, and receptacles for lunatics. The deſign of the former is that the unhappy objects, for whom they are deſtined, may not deprive ſuch of the poor as are afflicted with curable diſeaſes of a place in the hoſpitals, and yet not themſelves be entirely without relief. The college of general proviſion is bound to provide them lodging, board, nurſes, and attendance, that at leaſt they may have ſome mitigation of their ſufferings. In the houſes for lunatics poor patients of this deſcription have free admittance: but ſuch as have the means

* Ordinance concerning the governments, chap. xxv. ſect. 380. 386. 388, 389. 394.

muſt pay for their maintenance and attendance an adequate ſum.

For the erection and regulation of theſe and other inſtitutions for the relief of ſuffering humanity, within the province of the college of general proviſion, each of them receives at its opening, from the imperial coffers, the ſum of 15,000 rubles, which in moſt of the governments is conſiderably augmented by the charitable contributions of the public. The ſaid college was alſo empowered to eſtabliſh apothekes, and to employ the profits ariſing from them to the benefit of the aforementioned inſtitutions; but on condition that they ſhould be ſupplied gratis with all neceſſary medicines.

In the capital, in the reſidence, and in the generality of populous towns theſe inſtitutions are now not only upon a much larger ſcale than the general precept at firſt promiſed; but they are multiplied in various ways by the co-operation of the community at large. That we may give at leaſt one example of the greater inſtitutions of this kind we will here inſert a brief deſcription of the town-hoſpital of St. Peterſburg *, which was founded in the year 1784. — It is built in one of the ſkirts of the city by the ſide

* Georgi, beſchreibung von St. Peterſburg, chap. i. p. 241.

of

of the beautiful and broad Fontanka-canal, and conſiſts of a large, brick, inſulated building of handſome but ſimple architecture. The ground floor is devoted to the œconomical purpoſes of the inſtitution, and the upper ſtories are occupied by the patients. The rooms are lofty and ſpacious; and inſtead of ventilators, ſome of the window-ſhutters are pannelled with wire-work. In winter the warmth of the rooms muſt never be greater than 10 to 12 degrees of Reaumur.

This houſe, the internal arrangement whereof is modelled after the hoſpital of Vienna in its beſt properties, receives all neceſſitous patients, venereal excepted, and attends their cure without fee or reward; handicraftſmen and gentlemen's ſervants pay four rubles per month. All patients on admiſſion are immediately bathed and have their heads ſhaven; this done, they receive the hoſpital clothing and ſeverally a bed, having curtains round, but no teſter. The two ſexes are kept entirely apart. The number of beds amounts uſually to 300, but in caſes of emergency is increaſed to 400. In the year 1790, ſix contiguous buildings of timber on brick foundations were erected behind the main edifice, by the college of general proviſion, and furniſhed with 250 beds. Here the patients in ſummer enjoy the free air; and, during the in-

terval thus procured, the principal building is thoroughly cleanſed, and the atmoſphere changed by currents of air. — Beſides its projector and chief viſitor the counſellor of ſtate von Kelchen, this inſtitution has a ſtaff-ſurgeon and five other ſurgeons; it has likewiſe a naturaliſt belonging to it appointed for the purpoſe of trying the effects of electricity on the patients.

This ſalutary inſtitution, which does as much good as can be expected from it in the preſent circumſtances, has however experienced the fate of all inſtitutions of this nature; namely, patients are often brought to it ſo late that they can ſcarcely be lifted out of the bath and put to bed, which is in a great meaſure owing to the averſion entertained by the common people to public hoſpitals. In the four years from 1786 to 1789, it had altogether taken in 9427 patients, and the number is found annually to increaſe. Of theſe 7417 were ſent out cured, 1773 died, and 237 remained in it at the concluſion of the latter year.

In the mad-houſe, which with its ſmall end abuts upon the back front of the main ſtructure, is upon the ſame footing and under the ſame direction, are 44 rooms in two ranges, the one for male and the other for female lunatics. A broad paſſage divides them; the door of each chamber

ber is faſtened with a ſpring latch, which the keeper can open from without. The raving are not confined with chains but with leather thongs, while the quiet are ſuffered to walk freely in the paſſage or in the court. This inſtitution has alſo in common with the foregoing a garden for recreation. The whole eſtabliſhment, treatment, method of cure, and diet, are gentle and well-conducted, as plainly appears from their effects. In the three years from 1787 to 1789 altogether were there 229 of theſe miſerable beings, of whom 161 were ſent out reſtored, 11 diſmiſſed into the poor-houſe as incurable, 47 died, and 10 remained behind.

The city-hoſpital of St. Peterſburg for poor and incurable patients was opened in 1781. The indigence which qualifies for admiſſion to it is diſtinguiſhed into degrees which form two claſſes, one whereof compriſes the completely impotent, who have a claim to the full benefit of the houſe; to the ſecond claſs belong thoſe who are capable of doing ſome kind of work. Theſe latter are employed in any adequate occupation about the houſe. According to the eſtabliſhment the expenditure of the hoſpital amounts annually to 15,417 rubles. — The city-hoſpital at Moſco, which was endowed in 1775, admitted at that time 150 patients, and is completely on the ſame footing

footing with that of St. Peterſburg. A madhouſe is likewiſe connected with it.

Now, though the deſcription of theſe inſtitutions would be ſuitable only to a few towns in the empire, it is nevertheleſs certain that ſeveral on a ſmaller ſcale are proportionably upon as good a footing and as well conducted; and that the benefit accruing from Catharine's philanthropic regulations for the preſervation of her people, and for the alleviation of poverty and affliction among them, acquires for that great princeſs one immortal merit more. Where the end is ſo generous and humane, and where the means are ſo well ſelected, the effects muſt correſpond with the deſign; and who will pretend that both of them are not here in concurrence?

Beſides the claſſes of public hoſpitals already named, which, by the regulations for conſtituting the governments, muſt be in every one of them, there are in many other inſtitutions of a ſimilar nature, partly endowed by the crown, and partly by rich and humane individuals. Among them the excellent hoſpital founded at Moſco in the year 1763 by the grand-duke and heir apparent Paul Petrovitch, deſerves particular mention, in which, at his expence, 50 perſons are always maintained at a time, cured, and attended gratis. The philanthropic Mr. Howard,

who viſited this hoſpital himſelf, ſays that it would be difficult to find a better ſituation in the vicinity of the city for this inſtitution, having a large airy ſpot before it. The building conſiſts of only one ſtory, and ſtands two or three ſteps higher than the garden. The rooms are lofty, and each of them has an opening in the roof; the upper part of the window was likewiſe open, a circumſtance, he adds, which he never obſerved in any other hoſpital in Ruſſia. All the apartments are cleanly and kept in good order; the beds are of blue linen and ſufficiently large, being ſix feet two inches long and two feet ten inches broad; ſufficient ſpace is left between for making them. He tells us that he taſted the bread and the beer, and found them both very good; and adds, on the whole, I muſt confeſs that this little hoſpital would do honour to any country. When I viſited it there were in it 19 men and 7 women, beſides about an equal number of venereal patients, who were kept in rooms quite ſeparate; the kitchen and offices are commendably apart from the main building *.

To the medical-ſurgical ſchool in St. Peterſburg a ſmall clinical hoſpital is added, which,

* Obſervations made on his laſt journey, 4to. 1794. p. 37.

beſides

beſides its peculiar deſtination, to furniſh young ſurgeons with an opportunity for practical improvement, is alſo beneficial to upwards of a hundred poor patients annually. — In the ſame city is likewiſe a lazaret for venereal patients, founded by the crown in 1783. It has 60 beds, whereof 30 are for men, and the ſame number for women. Thoſe that are admitted may keep themſelves in perfect incognito, but may not leave the hoſpital before they are completely recovered. — We paſs over a multitude of other inſtitutions of a like nature in Moſco and other great towns of the empire, which have principally ariſen from the bounty of well-diſpoſed perſons in private life. Certain it is that few other countries afford ſo many and ſuch ſtriking proofs of the liberality and compaſſion of the public at large in charitable inſtitutions.

In the ſecond claſs we muſt place the MILITARY-HOSPITALS. They chiefly date their origin from the time of Peter the great, or the creation of the regular army and the fleet.

For the land-forces, beſides the two general land-hoſpitals in St. Peterſburg and Moſco, there are fourteen large field-hoſpitals at Aſtrakhan, Bogoyavlenſk, Kherſon, Kriukof, Riga, Reval, Elizabethgorod, Orenburg, Vyborg, Frederikſham, Kazan, Lubenau, Smolenſk, and in Cauca-

caſus;

caſus, without reckoning the ſeveral battalion-lazarets, which are every where in great numbers. Each diviſion has moreover its own phyſician, and belonging to the whole army are appointed three general-ſtaff-medici, and above five-and-twenty doctors, as they are called. — All the field-hoſpitals receive the ſums aſſigned to their ſupport from the war-commiſſariate.

The general hoſpital for land troops in St. Peterſburg was inſtituted by Peter the great; it ſtands in one of the out-quarters on the bank of the Neva, and has now commonly 1000 beds; but in time of war, and when recruits are raiſing, the number is twice or three times as great. It admits, beſides the guards and the artillery, who have their own medical eſtabliſhments, all the patients of the army. The medical perſons belonging to it are a phyſician, a chief ſurgeon, an operator, five ſurgeons, and twenty aſſiſtant ſurgeons, fifty pupils, and an apothecary, to which may be added ſeveral aſſiſtant-phyſicians and voluntary ſurgeons without ſtipends; which laſt, by way of recompence, if they are found expert in their examination are immediately appointed ſurgeons by the medical-college. The whole expences, excluſive of the maintenance of the patients and medicines, amount annually to 9620 rubles. — The general hoſpital in Moſco,

on

on the bank of the Yaſua, conſiſts of 23 wards, has nearly the ſame eſtabliſhment, but the ſalaries are ſomewhat ſmaller.

The eleven ſea-hoſpitals at preſent ſubſiſting are at St. Peterſburg, Cronſtadt, Oranienbaum, Riga, Archangel, Kazan, Taganrok, Bogoyavlenk, Kherſon, Reval, and Sevaſtopol. They receive their pay from the two admiralties of the Baltic and the Euxine. — The hoſpital for marines in St. Peterſburg is on rather a ſmaller ſcale than the land-hoſpital of that place, but is equal to it in its eſtabliſhment *. In the war-years 1788 and 1789 it had 7900 to 8800 patients. The ſtipends and other diſburſements, not including the maintenance of the patients or medicines, amount yearly to 6870 rubles. — As the ſea-hoſpital at Cronſtadt during the laſt Swediſh war was obliged to admit annually from

* The following are the ſtated ſalaries in the two hoſpitals at St. Peterſburg:

	Land Hoſpital.	Sea Hoſpital.
The doctor receives per annum	1000 rubles	800 rubles
Staff-ſurgeon	600	450
Operator	320	320
Surgeon	200	200
Under-ſurgeon	120	120
Pupil in ſurgery	80	30 to 80
Apothecary	180	180
Pupil in pharmacy	80	80

16,800

16,800 to 25,000 patients, therefore about that time a new marine hoſpital was conſtituted at Oranienbaum, and a part of the imperial palace there was granted and fitted up for that purpoſe *.

A third

* Having once appealed to the favourable teſtimony of the philanthropic Mr. John Howard, impartiality requires that we ſhould not attempt to conceal his leſs flattering judgment or his cenſure. His account of the land and ſea-hoſpitals on the whole is favourable enough; but in the eſtabliſhment of the marine hoſpital at Cronſtadt he finds much to blame. But ſtill more ſevere is his judgment on the field-hoſpitals in the interior of the empire. It appears, however, after the moſt careful inquiries of upright and ſkilful army-phyſicians, that our worthy countryman, being totally unacquainted with the form of government, the manners and the language of the ruſſian nation, and beguiled by his enthuſiaſtic humanity, was at times prompted to draw haſty concluſions. The harſheſt cenſures which Mr. Howard paſſes on the ruſſian field-hoſpitals relate principally to the following particulars: 1. Defect of cleanlineſs. This indeed is not to be vindicated; yet the ideas of cleanlineſs in an Engliſhman and a Ruſſian are ſo very different, that things which might appear extremely ſtriking to Mr. Howard, with the latter would excite no ſenſation whatever. Mr. Howard, however, praiſes the contrary on many occaſions. 2. Confined air. To live in rooms cloſe ſhut up, as Mr. Howard himſelf remarks, is the cuſtom of the country. Several hoſpitals are provided with ventilators, but the patients themſelves requeſt that no uſe may be made of them. 3. Bad nouriſhment. Here we ſhould have regard

A third claſs of public medical inſtitutions conſiſts of thoſe which cannot properly be inſerted under the former heads, and the ſubſiſtence whereof is for the moſt part entirely independent on the foregoing eſtabliſhments. To theſe principally belong the houſes for lying-in women, foundling hoſpitals, and thoſe for the ſmall-pox, as likewiſe the peſt houſes. A particular account of all theſe will certainly not be required in a work of this nature; but it would be an unpardonable omiſſion to paſs them over in total ſilence. Some ſpecimens of the moſt remarkable of each kind will ſufficiently anſwer

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regard to cuſtom. When Mr. Howard finds the quas ſour, and finds fault with it for being ſo, he ſhews himſelf utterly unacquainted with this beverage, as well as with the ſbitin. The quas ſhould be ſour; and this wholeſome antiſcorbutic national drink is only then ſpoilt or badly prepared when it has no acid. That Mr. Howard ſhould find the nutritious, but coarſe and black bread, bad, is very conceivable to an Engliſhman, who is only accuſtomed to white bread; but the Ruſſian finds himſelf very healthy with it and deſires no better. 4. Want of good nurſing, and particularly of female attendance. The matter of this reproach would certainly not be juſtifiable, eſpecially if it were true what Mr. Howard affirms of the hoſpital at Kherſon, that the nurſes who wait on the patients are people who have been turned out of the regiments on account of their ſtupidity and drunkenneſs.

our

our purpoſe, by enabling the reader to form a judgment of them all.

Even ſhould the important queſtion: Whether FOUNDLING-HOSPITALS deſtroy or preſerve more human lives? be not at preſent generally determined, but found extremely problematical from more recent obſervations and enumerations; yet it ſeems to be agreed on, that the great inſtitutes of this kind in the two chief cities of the ruſſian empire have hitherto been inconteſtibly highly beneficial to it. The diſcoveries which gave occaſion to the erection of that in Moſco, leave no doubt, that of all the children hitherto brought up in it, not the hundredth part would have been alive but for that inſtitution; and that conſequently, even in times of the greateſt mortality, it preſerves to the ſtate a very conſiderable number of young citizens. But how much more profitable it muſt be when we conſider it on the moral ſide, and think of the ſecret crimes that this inſtitute has prevented, which ſince the foundation of it have been almoſt entirely unknown. The foundling-hoſpitals in Ruſſia preſerve not merely human beings to the ſtate; they deliver to it citizens, free, induſtrious burghers, endowed with uſeful knowledge and abilities. For theſe and many other reaſons, there can no longer be any

queſtion concerning their abſolute utility: the only object of inquiry therefore is, whether or not they have produced proportionately as many good effects, as might reaſonably be expected from the extraordinary means with which the empreſs Catharine, and the unexampled co-operation of a large and wealthy public, have ſupplied them.

In order to put the reader in a condition to anſwer this queſtion himſelf, we ſhould be glad, if we had room, to lay before him a full account of this inſtitute, the principal object of it being more the cultivation than the mere preſervation of the citizen *; but at preſent we muſt confine ourſelves ſolely to the latter part of this great and comprehenſive plan, namely, the preſervation of the firſt phyſical exiſtence, till the age when education properly begins.

The education-houſe at Moſco was founded in the year 1763, and ſtands on the bank of the Moſkva, in one of the beſt quarters of that capital. The many and ſpacious buildings of which it conſiſts, and the foundation whereof coſt nearly as much as the ſuperſtructure itſelf, are, as well

* That this was really the main deſign in the foundation of theſe inſtitutes is manifeſt from their very denomination. For, in public papers and records, they are never called foundling-hoſpitals, but always education-houſes.

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in regard to magnitude as to magnificence, unequalled in Europe for a ſimilar deſtination. The whole forms a perfect quadrangle of five ſtories, the baſement is devoted to the purpoſes of œconomy, the next three floors are inhabited by the children, and the uppermoſt contains the wards for the ſick. In the middle of this quadrangle ſtands the magazine. The porter lives in a lodge at the entrance of one of the courts before the ſaid quadrangle, where likewiſe the baptiſtery is built, and where the children muſt be delivered who are brought after the gates are ſhut, which is always done at nine o'clock in the evening. Over againſt the porter's-lodge are the lying-in apartments or accoucheur-hoſpital, very commodiouſly fitted up. In what is called the corps-de-logis, but which is not yet entirely finiſhed, ſtanding in the forementioned court and connected with the ſquare, is the church, one of the handſomeſt in Moſco. — Beſides the numerous buildings belonging to the education-houſe within its walls which are about four verſts in compaſs, it has without the city an excellent farm, on which are kept upwards of eighty cows of the breed of Holland and Kholmogor, the milk of which is entirely uſed for the firſt nouriſhment of the children *.

* Heym's topographical Encyclopædia of the ruſſian empire, *art.* Moſkva, p. 500.

Of the direction and the officers belonging to this grand inſtitute, we ſhall mention only thoſe who are entruſted with the care of health. Theſe are: a doctor, three ſurgeons, an aſſiſtant-ſurgeon, and an apothecary, who all, the doctor excepted, live in or near the houſe. The phyſician's duty is to ſee to every thing in general that relates to health, to preſcribe the neceſſary medicines for the hoſpital, to inſtruct the midwives, and to lend his aſſiſtance in difficult births. The ſurgeons muſt inſpect the children who are brought into the education-houſe, ſend the healthy to the rooms devoted to the children, and the ſick or ſuſpected into the hoſpital, where they muſt be alternately preſent. The midwives, who, previouſly to their admiſſion are examined by the phyſician, cannot be abſent from the houſe without leave firſt obtained from the ſuperintendant, and, according to their inſtruction, have the care of the lying-in women and the new-born children. For the infants, nurſes, wet and dry, are provided; and every age of the boys as well as girls has its particular guardians of both ſexes.

The foundling-hoſpital receives children at all hours of the day or night, without any queſtion being put to the bringer, except whether the child has been baptized, and whether it has a name. Children may alſo be carried to the pariſh-prieſts, or to the monaſteries and poor-

houſes

houſes of the city, who immediately ſend them away to the foundling-hoſpital, where the deliverer receives two rubles for each child. The carriers of ſuch children are by day and by night under the ſpecial protection of the police. At the reception of every child, the day, the time, and the ſex are noted in a book, with all that the bringer declares of the circumſtances of the child, the clothes and other articles he brings with it, and the birth-marks and tokens obſerved upon it. Hereupon the baptiſm enſues, if not already adminiſtered; the name is entered in the book, and a little crucifix is hung round its neck with the number under which it is regiſtered. It is now examined by the ſurgeon, and brought to the childrens' rooms, where it receives new linen and ſwaddling-clothes from the magazine; meanwhile the articles of dreſs brought with it, if they be not too miſerable, are depoſited in a magazine apart, there to be kept.

The children are either ſuckled by ſtrong and healthy nurſes, each of whom can nouriſh two babes, or delivered to dry-nurſes who bring them up with other food. The phyſical education alone continues two years, when they come into the great rooms. Till the ſixth year boys and girls remain together, and during this period are habituated to eaſy employments. With the

ſeventh begins the moral and civil education; thenceforward the preſervation of the phyſical exiſtence is a ſubordinate object, and this is therefore the term we preſcribed to ourſelves for quitting for the preſent this inſtitution *.

On the manner in which this beneficial plan is executed, we will hear at leaſt one witneſs, by citing the judgment of a ſagacious and attentive obſerver, who, being an Engliſhman and a traveller, could probably have no intereſt in diſſembling the truth. "The rooms of the foundling-"hoſpital," ſays Mr. Coxe †, "are lofty and "large; the dormitories, which are ſeparate "from the work-rooms, are very airy, and the "beds are not crowded: each foundling, even "each infant, has a ſeparate bed; the bedſteads "are of iron; the ſheets are changed every "week, and the linen three times a week. In "going over the rooms I was particularly "ſtruck with their neatneſs; even the nurſeries "were uncommonly clean, and without any un-"wholeſome ſmells. No cradles are allowed, "and rocking is particularly forbidden. The "infants are not ſwaddled according to the

* General plan of the foundling-houſe at Moſco, in the Neuveranderten Ruſsland, vol. ii. 40—47.

† Travels through Poland, Ruſſia, Sweden, and Denmark, vol. ii. p. 63. 8vo. edit.

"cuſtom

" cuſtom of the country, but looſely dreſſed.
" — I could be no judge merely in viſiting the
" hoſpital, whether the children were well in-
" ſtructed and the regulations well obſerved:
" but I was perfectly convinced from their be-
" haviour, that they were in general happy and
" contented, and could perceive from their looks
" that they were remarkably healthy. This
" latter circumſtance muſt be owing to the un-
" common care which is paid to cleanlineſs,
" both in their perſons and rooms.

" In another viſit which I paid to this hoſpital,
" I ſaw the foundlings at dinner: the girls and
" boys dine ſeparately. The dining-rooms,
" which are upon the ground-floor, are large
" and vaulted, and diſtinct from their work-
" rooms. The firſt claſs ſit at table; the reſt
" ſtand: the little children are attended by ſer-
" vants; but thoſe of the firſt and ſecond claſs
" alternately wait on each other. The dinner
" conſiſted of beef and mutton boiled in broth,
" with rice; I taſted both, and they were re-
" markably good: the bread was very ſweet,
" and was baked in the houſe, chiefly by the
" foundlings. Each foundling has a napkin,
" pewter-plate, a knife, fork, and ſpoon: the
" napkin and table-cloth are clean three times in
" the week. They riſe at ſix, dine at eleven,

"and sup at six. The little children have bread "at seven, and at four. When they are not em- "ployed in their necessary occupations the "utmost freedom is allowed, and they are en- "couraged to be as much in the air as possible. "The whole was a lovely sight; and the coun- "tenances of the children expressed the utmost "content and happiness."

The confessedly sound principles on which the system of physical education is built; the great means of relief which this establishment has at its disposal; the good management of it hitherto by distinguished patriots; the care, attendance, and cleanliness, which, from the testimony of all impartial observers, prevail there: — all these circumstances conspire in enabling us to conclude with the highest degree of probability, that this beneficial institution does not fall short of its primary and proximate aim: but certain data on this subject have not as yet come to the knowledge of the public. It would be of great service to the world, and at the same time redound to the honour of this institution, if necessary statements were given of the numbers received every year, and the other concerns of the house. — All that we know at present of it is, that, in the twenty years since its opening to the end of the year 1786, including those born in

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the houſe, it had admitted 37,607 children, of whom 1020 were ſent out, and at the end of the laſt mentioned year only 6080 were remaining. If this ſtatement, in which we follow a very authentic writer *, be ſtrictly accurate, the loſs which this inſtitution has ſuſtained muſt ſurely be very conſiderable; but probably only a ſmall part of it would fall upon the foundling-hoſpital, if we knew preciſely the number of thoſe who died immediately after their reception, or brought in with them the germ of diſſolution. We ſhall not be in a condition to aſcertain the real mortality of the houſe, till we are informed by juſt eſtimates how many of the children brought were declared after examination to be perfectly ſound; the remainder which muſt be delivered into the hoſpital immediately after baptiſm, conſiſts of certain victims to death; and none would be ſo unreaſonable as to lay their loſs to the account of a philanthropical inſtitution, which enriches the country from year to year with an ever-increaſing number of healthy, active, and induſtrious burghers.

The foundling-hoſpital of St. Peterſburg, which is, properly ſpeaking, only a diviſion of that at Moſco, was founded in the year 1770, and in

* Georgi, beſchreib. von St. Peterſb. vol. i. p. 255.

1784

1784 was endowed by imperial munificence, with a ſumptuous edifice. The eſtabliſhment is exactly like that of Moſco; the number of foundlings there at the end of the year 1788 amounted to 300. Here alſo the ſame unfortunate circumſtance happens, that a great proportion of the children are brought thither ſick, and many even without a ſpark of life remaining. — Beſides theſe two great inſtitutions, others are erected on the model of them in ſeveral towns of the empire, as at Tula, Kaluga, Yaroſlaf, Kazan, &c.

In order to render the foundling-hoſpitals of ſtill greater benefit, LYING-IN HOUSES are annexed to them, in which all pregnant women without diſtinction, on merely announcing themſelves, are immediately admitted by the porter; and, without putting to them a queſtion of any kind, are inſtantly, whether it be day or night, conducted to the midwifery robms. To ſpare thoſe who enter the confuſion they would feel at being known, it is not only ſtrictly forbidden to diſcover any curioſity about them, but it is at their option to keep their face covered during the whole time of their ſtay. The lying-in houſe is provided with all the requiſite perſons and inſtruments; on urgent occaſions the midwives are aſſiſted by the phyſician, who in caſes of neceſſity

neceſſity muſt perform the operations himſelf. As the hour of delivery can ſcarcely be accurately aſcertained, women are permitted to be in the hoſpital a week before and two weeks after lying-in, to which regulation, however, in extraordinary caſes, exceptions are made. During this time the patients enjoy all the needful attendance and nurſing. — At the foundling-hoſpital of St. Peterſburg a proper perſon is appointed as teacher of the art of midwifery, for forming expert practitioners as well for the houſe as for the public in general.

The ſchool of medicine and ſurgery at St. Peterſburg has alſo a ſmall lying-in houſe, capable of admitting eight or ten females at once, in the peculiar deſign of affording practical information to the pupils of this inſtitution as for the ſake of forming ſkilful accoucheurs. Here, likewiſe, the greateſt ſecrecy is obſerved; when recovered the patients are diſcharged without fee or reward, and they are at liberty either to take their children with them or to leave them for the foundling-hoſpital.

Next to theſe inſtitutions none deſerve our attention more than the SMALL-POX HOSPITALS, erected in the view of extending the practice of inoculation. Ruſſia, in the eighteenth century, appears to have the advantage over moſt other countries

countries in Europe, that eſtabliſhments of general utility meet here proportionately with fewer difficulties, are encouraged with far greater munificence from the throne, and more quickly attain to a generally diffuſed operation. A remarkable inſtance of this is ſeen in the hiſtory of inoculation; a benefit which Ruſſia owes to the enlightened adminiſtration, and to the perſonal example of Catharine II. and her imperial ſon.

Long ere lady Mary Wortly Montague in 1721 brought the art of inoculation from Conſtantinople to England, this mode of preſervation was known to the oriental nations. From England the practice was ſpread into the other countries of Europe, but with very tardy progreſs; as in moſt of theſe countries not only the clergy but even phyſicians ſtood up in oppoſition to it, and acted on the prejudices of the people, always of themſelves diſpoſed to reſiſt any innovation. Four-and-thirty years after the introduction of this happy diſcovery only 200,000 were reckoned to have been inoculated; and, during that ſpace, the public confidence in it had ſo much abated, that for fifteen years it was almoſt entirely neglected. — Of all the provinces of the ruſſian empire Livonia was the firſt that employed this preſervative. A phyſician in the

the circle of Dorpat * made it here firſt known in the year 1756, and practiſed it with ſo much ſucceſs in the country round him, that within eight years he had inoculated 1023 children, of whom only one died. In St. Peterſburg the firſt public experiment was made in September 1768 on ten children, though ſince 1758 ſeveral trials had been hazarded by ſome phyſicians of the place, but without attracting obſervation. In the ſame year Catharine II. ſet a glorious and affecting example to her people, by ſubmitting herſelf, together with her only ſon Paul Petrovitch, then fourteen years old, to inoculation. The operation was performed by our countryman Dr. Dimſdale †, then already famous by his ſucceſsful practice of the art, who, in conſequence of the proſperous termination of it, was rewarded in a truly imperial manner with riches and honours. In order to perpetuate the memorial of this event, ſo important to the whole nation, an anniverſary thankſgiving was appointed to be kept. The great nobles of the em-

* The name of this perſon, who rendered ſuch ſervice to his country, ought not to be paſſed over in ſilence; it was Schulinus, who had already gained great reputation in thoſe parts by his ſucceſsful treatment of the natural ſmall-pox. See concerning him, Gadebuſch Livonian Bibliotheca, *art.* Schulinus, vol. i. p. 120.

† See Life of Catharine II. vol. i. p. 518.

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pire, the inhabitants of the reſidence, all ranks and claſſes of people, ſeemed to vie with each other in following ſo illuſtrious an example. Not a ſingle phyſician, not one eccleſiaſtic made any public oppoſition to inoculation; almoſt all of the former adopted it in their practice, and ſeveral among the latter recommended it even from the pulpit, to which the church ſervice of the anniverſary preſented a fair opportunity. To this is even owing the valuable ſeries of diſcourſes which we have before made uſe of, and from which the preſent accounts are principally extracted *.

For the more active and rapid promotion of the practice among the poorer claſſes of people, a public inſtitution for inoculating was erected in the year 1768 at the imperial expence in one of the out-parts of the reſidence, now known by the name of the Small-pox hoſpital, and where every month a certain number of children are inoculated and nurſed for two weeks till their complete recovery. At firſt money was given to parents who brought their children

* Sermons by J. C. Grot, on inoculation of the ſmall-pox, with particulars relating to the hiſtory of it in Ruſſia, and an appendix on the mortality of the ſmall-pox in Peterſburg, as a help to the examination of the queſtion concerning their harmleſſneſs in Ruſſia.

hither;

hither; but the numerous inſtances of the ſucceſs of the artificial infection ſoon rendered this encouragement unneceſſary. — Since the year 1783, the ſmall-pox hoſpital has been under the inſpection of the college of general proviſion. It at preſent admits twice a year, in ſpring and autumn, free of all expence, all children that are brought, and has a phyſician and a ſurgeon to attend them. The expences of this inſtitution amount annually to 6000 rubles.

Shortly after the erection of this hoſpital, inoculation was alſo introduced into all the great imperial ſeminaries of education. From St. Peterſburg it gradually ſpread into the interior of the empire. So early as the year 1768, baron von Aſch introduced it into Kief. In the year 1772 the practice of inoculation entered Siberia; the empreſs even conſtituted in Irkutſk a public inſtitution for that purpoſe. In this, within the firſt three years, not only of the Ruſſians, but likewiſe of the nomadic tribes of thoſe parts, 6768 perſons of both ſexes were inoculated. In a period of five years the number of them amounted to 15,580. In Kazan, likewiſe, a public inoculation hoſpital was founded by the governor of the place.

Theſe inſtitutions have ſince ſo greatly increaſed, that we are not in a capacity to give a complete liſt of them. Not only moſt of the

great towns, but even many villages and noblemen's eſtates are at preſent provided with theſe hoſpitals. Add to this, that the prejudices againſt inoculation are ſo totally vaniſhed, and the conviction of its utility become ſo general, that there are but few parents, at leaſt in the upper ranks, who omit to endeavour at enſuring their children in their earlieſt infancy, by this eaſy operation from the danger attending the natural infection. In ſeveral diſtricts the country people, who can ſeldom rely on having the aid of a phyſician, have been taught to inoculate themſelves, and they practice this method with the happieſt effects. In Livonia, ever ſince 1769, paſtor Eiſen has acquired great merit by not only inoculating, but by inducing the boors, and eſpecially the mothers, to employ that method under his direction. In the government of Irkutſk, M. Schilling, the ſtaff-ſurgeon of the place, ſtill employs himſelf in teaching the nomadic people, at their own requeſt, the art of inoculation. From May to Auguſt 1791, he inoculated there in the circle of Barguzinſk 565 Buræts, 35 Tunguſes of the ſteppes, and 20 rein-deer-Tunguſes, altogether, therefore, 620 perſons of both ſexes, of whom only 6 died *.

* According to a Report made to the medical college, October 1791.

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In order to enable us to judge of the effects that have arisen from these small-pox institutions since their introduction into the russian empire, it will not be unintersting to read the following result of the petersburg small-pox hospital, drawn up by the academician Krafft, and incorporated in his third memoir on the lists of births and deaths published at St. Petersburg *.

In the eleven years from 1780 to 1790 there were inoculated in this institution 1570 children, 860 males, and 710 females, of whom four died. This proportion is as 25 to 10,000; or, of 1000 inoculated children, there die not quite 3. On an average it may be admitted that in Petersburg of 10,000 children attacked by the natural small-pox 1428 die; consequently, the proportion of the mortality of the natural small-pox to the mortality of the inoculated is as 1428 to 25, or as 57 to 1.

The number of children inoculated in this institution, on an average of eleven years, amounts annually to 143. Now Petersburg in the same period has yearly 6049 births, and consequently only the 42d child of all the births has enjoyed the benefit of this institution. — It is here to be remarked, that parents in easy circumstances have their children inoculated at home, and that

* Nova acta acad. scient. Petropol. tom. viii. p. 253.

therefore the univerſality of this practice cannot be judged of by the above proportion. — The age of the inoculated children was never under three and a half, and uſually from three to ten years. Nine perſons, however, were inoculated at the age of 16, two of 25, and one of 46.

It would be found very inſtructive if we were enabled to compare theſe ſtatements with thoſe of the ſmall-pox hoſpitals in other towns of Ruſſia. In that at Irkutſk, for example, in five years, from 1773 to 1776, and in the year 1779, in all 6009 perſons were inoculated, of whom 43 died. Of 10,000 inoculated here then 71 were loſt, or out of 1000 ſeven, as the mortality in the peterſburg ſmall-pox hoſpital amounts only to three out of 1000. The mortality of the natural ſmall-pox is known to be greater among the nomadic nations; and, beſides, thoſe inoculated at Irkutſk were probably for the moſt part grown perſons.

We cannot cloſe this head without mentioning the inſtitutions againſt the moſt dreadful and deſtructive of all diſeaſes; againſt a diſeaſe which though it appear but ſeldom in the civilized countries of our quarter of the world, yet by the devaſtation it makes, where it has once ſtruck its root, whole generations are ſlain, and whole regions laid waſte. Ruſſia too has experienced

fienced this great public calamity, and has learnt to know the effects of the PLAGUE from the desolation it has occasioned: from her situation, her commerce, her borderers, and her wars, she is more exposed to this horrible contagion than other countries: it becomes naturally, therefore, one of the most important concerns of government to obstruct the communication of the infection by preventive institutions, and to collect practical rules which, in the lamentable case of its raging, may mitigate the general distress. The point of time since which this matter has become an important object of state policy is too near the present to allow us to forget it; and thanks to the regulations of Catharine II. and to the enlightened age in which we live, that this dreadful catastrophe at least did not pass by without benefit for futurity!

From more antient accounts we learn that Mosco had the misfortune in the last century to be ravaged by the plague: in the year 1654 it raged for three months, (July till September,) and did not entirely cease till between the 12th and 25th of December. In the two succeeding years it broke out in some of the southern districts, but never came to Novgorod. It therefore at that time took nearly the same route as it was found to do in the present century: but

as nobody then thought of minuting down the circumſtances of that unhappy event, and the means of prevention that were then had recourſe to, the benefits that might have accrued from that lamentable viſitation were loſt to poſterity; and when Ruſſia a hundred and ſixteen years afterwards was afflicted with the ſame ſcourge, it was found neceſſary at once to make the people ſenſible of the baneful nature of the diſeaſe, and to find out new meaſures to be adopted againſt it. In order to give permanency to the uſefulneſs of theſe inſtitutions, the commiſſioners, conſiſting of the officers of ſtate and phyſicians appointed to check and to heal the ravages of the plague, reſolved to commit to the preſs all the regulations and writings that came out either during the diſtemper or after it had ceaſed, and to publiſh them together for the information of future times; and it is from this inſtructive collection that we ſhall here lay down ſome of the moſt prominent data as outlines of the hiſtory of that deplorable event *.

The

* To this end the commiſſioners requeſted permiſſion of the directing ſenate, and entruſted the publication to one of their members, the college-counſellor Athanaſius Schafonſky, ſuperior phyſician of the army-hoſpital. The work bears this title: Opiſſanie moravoi yaſvui, &c. that is, Account of the plague which raged at Moſco from the year 1770

The plague made its firſt appearance during the former of the two turkiſh wars in Valakhia, and ſpread itſelf thence, through Moldavia, through Poland, and through Little Ruſſia, to Siyefſk and Briyanſk, two towns not far from the borders of the Ukraine. In Kief it laſted from Auguſt 1770 to the February following; it appeared, indeed, afreſh in the enſuing ſummer, but was preſently checked. The inſtitutions were in general ſo efficacious in theſe parts, that only in Neſhin a ſecond rather ſevere attack of the plague was felt from July till November 1771.

1770 to 1772, with a ſupplement of all the regulations that were ordered to be obſerved for the extermination of it. Printed by ſovereign command, in the year 1775, in Moſco, at the imperial univerſity; 4to. pp. 652, without dedication, preface, or contents; with two copper plates. It contains, beſides a two-fold deſcription of the plague compoſed by the editor himſelf, 121 additional papers, as, the writings of the commiſſioners, the reſt of their adopted regulations, the manifeſtoes, ukaſes, opinions of ſeveral phyſicians, and many other pieces relating to this calamitous event. — On account of the great extenſiveneſs of the original, I have adhered ſolely to the accurate abſtract, made with the moſt ſcrupulous attention and great ſagacity by Mr. Bachmeiſter, which is to be ſeen in the fifth volume of his Ruſſian bibliotheca, p. 287—318.

The caſe, however, was far otherwiſe at Moſco. In defiance of all precautions the plague reached the capital, where it was firſt obſerved, though but little, in November 1770, to be in ſome houſes. But, on its breaking out on the 17th of December in the general army-hoſpital, and the head phyſician of it, M. Schafonſky, had informed the medical college of it on the 22d of December, after a conſultation of eight doctors had made a declaration that this ſickneſs was really the plague, that hoſpital was ſhut up, in which, of 27 patients, only 5 recovered. Not till after a quarantine of ſix weeks was the hoſpital opened again, and the building in which the plague had been was burnt. — The infection, according to evident traces, had been brought by people coming from parts that were the theatre of war.

In March 1771 it was firſt known, that ever ſince the beginning of the year an unuſually great mortality had prevailed among the work-people of the great linen-manufactory. By inſenſible degrees this uncommon mortality was diſcovered in other quarters of the town. Now, in conſequence of an examination made by phyſicians on the 11th of March, all the people were ſent away from the manufactory as ſoon as poſſible,

poſſible, and the ſound as well as the ſick all kept under cloſe inſpection; but ſeveral had previouſly made their eſcape, and even people of the town had viſited the manufactory to and fro. Thus, it is natural to ſuppoſe, that the infection was conſtantly ſpreading farther. — The magiſtracy now interpoſed; the police required an account of every diſtempered and dying perſon; and the ſenate convened a medical council of eleven phyſicians, who continued ſitting till the appointment of the above-mentioned commiſſion. This council, at its ſecond meeting on the 23d of March, required that all workmen belonging to the linen manufactory ſhould be removed from the city; an order which could not be ſtrictly executed, as ſeveral of them were abſolutely not to be found. On the 26th of March nine members of the medical council, to the interrogation of the governor of the city, feldt-marſhal count Soltikof, ſent a written anſwer that this malady was really the plague; the other two members were of a different opinion, to the great prejudice of the public, who agreed with them, and therefore neglected the neceſſary precautions. On the 31ſt of March, however, all the eleven members ſubſcribed the propoſed preſervatives, which they

had unanimouſly conſulted upon, from this dread-ful diſtemper *.

The empreſs, in the mean time, ſeemed to ſurmiſe that all the applications hitherto em-ployed would prove inſufficient; accordingly on the 25th of March ſhe iſſued an order to purſue much ſeverer meaſures, and gave the execution of them to lieutenant-general Yerapkin, who undertook this important commiſſion the 31ſt of March. The firſt thing he did was to place a ſtate-officer in every quarter of the town as in-ſpector of the malady, and all the phyſicians there were enjoined to pay obedience to his com-mands. From the daily liſts of the deaths † was ſeen

* Theſe propoſals relate moſtly to cleanlineſs of the houſes, ſtreets, air, &c. The filling up the graves in which the dead bodies were depoſited with lime was thought not ad-viſable. The public places had been long before fumigated, but commonly with dung and other impure ſubſtances. Alſo an order came out in March to ſeal up all the public baths.

† Theſe liſts deſerve, at leaſt according to the months, to be inſerted here, as they plainly ſhew the violence and vi-ciſſitudes of this horrid diſeaſe. It is only to be obſerved, that they are not entirely complete, as the circumſtances ſhew, and as Schafonſky himſelf remarks. Many corpſes were concealed and ſecretly interred; numbers of people had already left the city ſo early as July, and according to Schafon-

ſeen indeed the progreſs of the peſtilence; but as till then no bills of mortality had ever been framed in Moſco, there were no means of comparing the number of deaths with that of ordinary years.

In regard to the extent and population of the city, the number of the deaths in April 1771 was reckoned moderate; and it appears that the exiſtence of the plague was at that time more doubted of than ever it had been before. In the mean time an order ſigned by the empreſs's own hand came out to carry all bodies out of town for burial; alſo ſome of the entrances to the city were faſtened up.

During the months of April and May the plague had almoſt entirely ceaſed among the above-mentioned people of the linen-manufactory in the monaſteries which ſerved them for hoſpitals; and in the city it was miſtaken, as the inhabit-

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Schafonſky's own declaration, but few inhabitants were in September left in the city. Now, ſeeing, as Mr. Bachmeiſter obſerves, that in September above 21,000 perſons died, and the uſual population amounting to upwards of 400,000, then in that one month, not the twentieth, but perhaps the ſixth, perhaps the fifth, or even a far greater part of the then preſent inhabitants, muſt have died. — The ſtate of the population after the plague may be ſeen from the ſummary ſtatement of the following years. During the latter

inhabitants were inexhauſtible in inventions to give it another appearance. — In June it was ordered

latter (1775) the court was at Moſco, and conſequently the number of inhabitants greater than ordinary.

In the year 1771.	DEATHS In the city.	In hoſpitals and quarantines.	Together.	BIRTHS
April - - -	665	79	744	—
May - - -	795	56	851	—
June - - -	994	105	1099	—
July - - -	1410	298	1708	—
Auguſt - -	6423	845	7268	—
September -	19761	1640	21401	—
October - -	14935	2626	17561	—
November -	3466	1769	5235	—
December -	319	486	805	—
Totals	48768	7904	56672	—
1772				—
January - -	209	121	330	—
February - -	274	78	352	—
March - - -	304	30	334	—
April - - -	374	—	374	—
May - - -	285	—	285	—
June - - -	247	—	247	—
July - - -	276	—	276	85
Auguſt - -	354	—	354	249
September -	238	—	238	231
October - -	268	—	268	363
November -	284	—	284	342
December -	350	—	350	240
Totals	3363	229	3592	1510
1773	—	—	7195	3989
1774	—	—	7527	3395
1775 to the end of Auguſt	—	—	6559	2108

In

ordered to ſearch for the ſcattered clothes and other matters belonging to the linen manufacturers and to burn them: but this, like many other ſalutary ordinances, had a direct contrary effect; for now theſe things were ſecretly conveyed into other houſes, and thus ſpread the infection the more. As the flight of the rich and noble, which had continued ſome months, muſt have carried the ſickneſs into the country, a command was iſſued in Auguſt to viſit their ſervants and to detain the ſuſpected; the reſt had liberty to go away. Now likewiſe the common tippling-houſes were ſhut up, and the order for ſealing up the baths was repeated. — In this month the ravages made by the plague were manifeſted in a very dreadful manner; many of the inhabitants therefore endeavoured to provide for their ſafety, by locking up their houſes and court-yards. The common people regarded all the applications recommended by the magiſtracy only with great diſlike. They were principally ſet againſt the ſick-houſes and quarantines, which they conſidered as unneceſſary inventions of the

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In the four years from 1783 to 1786, the number of births amounted to 27,240, and the deaths were 19,922; conſequently, on an average, the annual number of births 6810; of deaths 4980.

phyſicians;

phyſicians; they reſiſted the viſiting of the ſick, and would have murdered the college-counſellor Schafonſky, if an inſpector of the quarter had not come to his reſcue. On the other hand, the ſectariſts known by the name of raſkolniks, diſtinguiſhed themſelves from the great multitude by their docility and obedience. All of that ſect who dwelt in Moſco, and many of them in its vicinity, maintained an infirmary and a quarantine-houſe for themſelves, and at their own expence without the city.

The month of September was the moſt terrible of all. To the devaſtations of the plague, which had now riſen to their height, was added the well-known inſurrection of the populace, in which the archbiſhop of Moſco loſt his life, on the 16th of September, and which probably could not have been ſo eaſily quelled by ſuch a handful of troops, if by the flights and deaths the number of the people had not been much diminiſhed. — The empreſs, greatly afflicted at this lamentable ſtate of things, reſolved to ſet out for Moſco herſelf; but this journey meeting with inſurmountable difficulties, ſhe diſpatched count (afterwards prince) Orloff thither, with full powers to put in execution every thing he ſhould think neceſſary to the extirpation of this dreadful calamity. His preſence, and the regulations adopted

adopted by him, were ſoon attended with beneficial effects. Several of thoſe who had quitted the city now returned, and even the behaviour of the common people took a different turn.

Two boards of commiſſioners were now conſtituted, who entered on their employment the 12th of October, the one for preventing the contagion, and the other for counteracting its effects. They were to make all the regulations they could deviſe for theſe purpoſes; and all phyſicians, apothecaries, hoſpitals, &c. were made dependent on them. The executive commiſſion, beſide all other affairs of police, were to ſee to the due performance of all that the other two commiſſions required. The former immediately publiſhed a printed paper of directions what means to uſe as preſervatives from the plague, and pointing out to ſuch as were already attacked by it, how they themſelves could moſt contribute to their recovery. As the continued abhorrence of the inhabitants againſt the public hoſpitals occaſioned perpetual concealments, it was thought expedient to give to every perſon, on his diſcharge, in conſequence of a cure, beſides the ordinary allowance of proviſion and new clothing, a gratuity of five, or if he were married, ten rubles. On this, there were doubtleſs a great number of ſick; but many healthy perſons came

likewiſe, feigning themſelves to be ſick from motives of covetouſneſs. For the children of parents who had died of the plague, prince Orloff cauſed the erection of a peculiar orphan-houſe. After having acquitted himſelf of theſe and many other perilous attempts, he returned to St. Peterſburg on the 21ſt of November.

By this time the unfortunate inhabitants of Moſco were at length convinced of their miſerable error concerning the nature of this diſtemper. Their manſuetude and readineſs to concur in all the meaſures adopted by government, produced a viſible diminution in the number of deaths from day to day, till at length in January 1772, not a trace of the peſtilence remained.

That I may give my readers ſome idea of the condition of this great and populous city during the prevalence of this tremendous ſcourge, and for ſome time after, I ſhall preſent only ſome ſtriking features from the picture of their diſtreſs, which probably no one will read without horror. — A total ſtop was put to innumerable branches of buſineſs and the ſeveral occupations of ſocial life, and new ones roſe up in their ſtead. Many houſes were ſhut up, in the ſtreets were ſeen but few paſſengers, and every day was prolific in new ſcenes of deſolation and affright. — To prevent a ſcarcity of proviſions the government

erected

erected large houſes, in which the neceſſary articles of conſumption were depoſited. The loſs of employment had occaſioned great diſtreſs to numbers of people; they were ſet to work in heightening the wall and deepening the ditch round what is called the chamber-college. In ſpite of all theſe methods and many others, it was found neceſſary to denounce the penalty of death againſt ſuch as ſhould convey away goods and property belonging to infected perſons from the houſes that were ſtanding empty, or open graves for deſpoiling the bodies of ſuch as had died of the plague. — Dwelling-houſes or courts, in which only ſome of their inhabitants had died of the diſtemper, were computed at upwards of 6000, and in which they all died, at more than 3000. Now, as Moſco before the eruption of the plague contained 12,538 dwelling-houſes, it follows, that not the fourth part of them remained free from that viſitation. — From April 1771 to the end of February 1772, in the ſick-houſes and quarantines 12,565 perſons were maintained at the expence of the crown.

Such was the ſtate of the city during that doleful period: and how many new regulations and troubles did it not coſt to reſtore the former eſtabliſhments; to reduce all buſineſſes and employments to the channel which they had left;

to

to revive trade and commerce; and to do all this with safety and without danger of a second desolation! The most urgent and indispensable measures to be taken were those relating to the purification of infected houses *, which they began to do on the 12th of December 1771, and continued till the following spring. This was conducted by clearing them of all infected articles; by letting in the fresh air on all sides, by exposing them to the severities of the frost, by fumigations †, and other methods. — The thirteen

* Among the buildings which actually underwent purification were 117 churches which had lost their priests or church-officers by the plague, and on that account had been sealed up; 45 courts of judicature, magistracy-houses, and 46 other public-offices, comprehending those buildings which had been devoted to public uses only on account of the distemper; as for example several monasteries and the house of prince Orloff, which he had given up to be a sick-house for the nobleſſe; 7000 dwelling-houses or courts, which were thought worth purifying, and above 2000 bad or ruinous habitations, which were totally demolished; 113 manufactories, whereof 68 were for the weaving of linen, woollen, and silk, altogether having 2716 looms.

† The commission for quelling the contagion caused three receipts for making the fumigatory powders to be published, and the powders themselves to be sold at a low price in all the apothekes, and to be distributed gratis to the poor. The commission, of whose invention they were, resolved first to be fully convinced of the beneficial effects of them by experience.

thirteen burial-places assigned for those who died of the plague were raised more than an arshine in height by fresh earth, which alone cost 35,000 rubles. — On the total extinction of all remains of the pestilential poison, regard was particularly had to the corpses, which, to save themselves from the quarantaines, the inhabitants had either buried in their houses or thrown into concealed places, and consequently on the return of spring might be the occasion of mortal exhalations. By the vigorous measures that were taken to the discovery of them near a thousand corpses made their appearance, with which, as they were mostly found without coffins, various proceedings were adopted. Those which had lain within the dwellings, were ordered to be taken by the Katersh-

perience. They therefore took some clothes of persons who had died of the plague, that were impregnated with the perspired-vapour, and on which were apparent marks of the matter that had issued from buboes and carbuncles; hung them up in a house in which all the inhabitants had died of the plague; fumigated them for four days, twice each day, thoroughly with these powders; caused them afterwards to be aired for six days, and gave them to seven people to put on, who had forfeited their lives, and were obliged to wear them sixteen days successively in the same house, nevertheless they all remained free from any infection, and after performing a quarantine of a fortnight, they were allowed to mix with other healthy people.

niks (a ſpecies of galley-ſlaves) appointed for that purpoſe, with a part of the ſurrounding earth, in ſeparate boxes or ſhells, to the uſual burial-places, and there to burn the carts on which they were brought. The pits out of which ſuch bodies had been drawn were carefully filled up with earth. While thus employed, the Katerſhniks were made to wear waxed clothes and gloves, to keep ginger and other ſpices in their mouths, and to ſtop their ears and noſtrils with cotton ſteeped in vinegar. Laſtly, they were obliged to waſh themſelves with vinegar, and to remain for at leaſt eight days in a place apart from the town. On the other hand, thoſe bodies which lay without the buildings, were ſuffered to remain unmoved, and were only covered to the height of an arſhine with chalk and rubbiſh. Though this interment laſted till the enſuing ſpring, yet, from the great precautions that were taken, not one of the many labourers, who could not avoid the contact with the dead bodies, caught any infection. — Notwithſtanding the good reaſons for ſuppoſing every ſpark of the contagion to be utterly extinct, yet the regulations were kept in force till the ſummer of 1772.

From the firſt of December of that year the city of Moſco was declared to be free from the plague,

plague, and a ſound place, and the greater part of the regulations that had been adopted againſt it were gradually diminiſhed; yet the commiſſion for ſtopping the plague continued till the 6th of September 1775, at which period it, together with all the quarantaines and poſt-ſtations eſtabliſhed within the empire on account of the plague, were aboliſhed by an ukaſe from the ſenate. — The expences occaſioned by this public calamity to the ſtate were very heavy; that for the preſervation of Moſco alone coſt the crown 400,000 rubles.

After peruſing this brief account, nobody will be ſurpriſed that it was found impoſſible to ſtifle the peſtilence in its birth. Beſides the cauſes which appear from the foregoing narrative, one of the greateſt obſtacles was in the local poſition of Moſco, which is 36 verſts in circumference, and cannot with ſo much propriety be called a city as the firſt province of the empire. The majority of the inhabitants are not under the juriſdiction of the corporation, and the magiſtrates have no power over their entering or quitting the city. It was theſe people who, in the ſequel, when they perceived the danger and would not conform to the ordinances that were iſſued, haſtened in crowds to their homes, and thereby propagated the contagion in the govern-

ments of Moſco, Smolenſk, Niſhney-Novgorod, Kazan, and Voronetch. To prevent theſe diſorders would have required half an army; whereas at that time, on account of the war, there was but one regiment of infantry, and a few ſmall companies of ſoldiers in Moſco. It was even found neceſſary, as many of theſe died in the road, to raiſe a police-battalion in the capital, for guarding the poſts, and as much as poſſible to preſerve tranquillity and order.

Admirable and humane as the regulations and ſacrifices made on the part of government on this occaſion were, not leſs ſo were the pains that were taken by the commiſſioners for rendering this dreadful experience beneficial to poſterity. The collection of memorials which they publiſhed on this unhappy event contains, beſides the preſcriptions peculiar to the circumſtances as they aroſe, in a copious narrative of practical obſervations and conſequences, a multitude alſo of excellent rules which may ſerve as a pattern and foundation for the methods to be purſued in ſimilar caſes. Among them are, a comprehenſive medical deſcription of the plague, its nature, cauſes, characteriſtics, contingencies, and operations; the means of preſervation, &c. — Directions drawn up by 23 phyſicians and

ſurgeons

ſurgeons for the conduct of common people infected by the diſeaſe, and what remedies they ought to uſe. — A paſtoral letter from the archbiſhops to the prieſts, directing them how to preſerve themſelves from infection in the diſcharge of their functions. — A complete deſcription of the method of proceeding obſerved in the peſt-houſes. — An inſtruction ſhewing how the relicts of infectious matter may be expelled from houſes and goods. — Deſcriptions and plans of quarantaines and houſes for the ſick, with ſeveral other particulars. — The patriotic perſonages, who brought this uſeful undertaking to effect, have the greater claim on the gratitude of their country, as it has frequently ſince been enabled to perceive the good effects of their advice *.

In order, however, to guard as much as poſſible againſt ſimilar events, and even to prevent the communication of the plague, ſince the acquiſition of the Otchakof-ſteppe, and the provinces from Poland, three permanent quarantaines have been erected along the frontiers of

* In the autumn of 1772, and in December 1773, the plague made its appearance in ſome of the ſouthern diſtricts of the empire, particularly at Kiſliar and Moſdok; but by the preſcriptions of theſe commiſſioners it was ſoon extirpated and prevented entirely from ſpreading farther.

Ruſſia and Turkey; namely, in the harbour of Odeſſa (formerly Hadſhibey) on the Euxine, in the city of Yampol in the government of Brazlau, and in the village of Shvanetz in the government of Podolia. Each of theſe quarantaines has a preſident, an inſpector, a ſtaff-ſurgeon with an aſſiſtant, a tranſlator, &c. and a company of 200 ſoldiers, with their proper officers. The expences of the eſtabliſhment of each of theſe quarantaines amount to 3475 rubles, in which, however, the garniture, proviſions, and ammunition of the company are not compriſed. Beſides the ſum allotted for medicaments, the governor of every government, that is furniſhed with a quarantaine, is obliged, in caſe of emergency, immediately to procure all proper requiſites, and to demand medicines from the medical people in office *.

All the eſtabliſhments which we have hitherto been deſcribing for preſerving the population have properly no other aim than to the health of the inhabitants; but, beſides ſickneſs and death, there are numberleſs other evils, phyſical and moral, which prevent the increaſe of population. A circumſtantial detail of all the ſubjects that lie within the province of the medical-police, is

* Ukaſe of the 18th of Auguſt 1795. Journal von Ruſsland, tom. v. p. 178—184.

beyond

beyond the ſtated limits of our plan, which comprehends too many articles to allow of their being all complete. We ſhall, therefore, confine ourſelves to a ſhort and abrupt ſpecification of the moſt material of theſe impediments, ſo far as they concern the population of the empire in general.

Scarcity, bad quality, and dearneſs of proviſions, fall immediately under this rubric. — In a country of ſuch vaſt extent as the ruſſian empire, the diverſity of climate and ſoil muſt naturally occaſion a very ſtriking inequality in regard to the quantity, the goodneſs, and the price of the various articles of food; but this very inequality facilitates to a wiſe adminiſtration the means of preventing a general ſcarcity, as the ſuperfluity of one region is made to balance the deficiencies of another. The greater part of the ruſſian empire is ſo abundant in ſuch products as are of general and indiſpenſable conſumption, as to have ſufficient for bartering againſt ſuch as may be wanting, and alſo for ſupplying the poorer provinces *. Only the regions that lie moſt to the north

* Concerning the extreme cheapneſs of the neceſſaries of life in the interior provinces, many examples may be ſeen in the journals of the academical travellers. At Kraſnoyarſk, for inſtance, about the year 1772 a pood of rye-flour coſt

north and to the eaſt are ſo ſparingly provided by nature, that the ſubſiſtence of their inhabitants depends on the importation from other governments; but this unavoidable diſadvantage is greatly alleviated by navigable rivers and canals, by good roads, by the ever-increaſing commerce of the country, and by the free communication encouraged by the government between the ſeveral provinces of the empire. Inſtead of the numerous intermediate tolls, which in many other countries encumber the diſtribution of the articles for home conſumption, in Ruſſia no pains are ſpared to facilitate and to ſecure by laws the beneficial conjunction of all the parts of this prodigious empire. From the coaſts of the Baltic to the ſhores of the eaſtern

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from 2 to 3 kopeeks, of wheat-flour about 5 kopeeks, of butchers'-meat from 15 to 25 kopeeks; a cow was to be bought for a ruble, a kid for 15 kopeeks at the utmoſt, &c. Pallas, travels, vol. iii. p. 5—12. — Since that time the prices have riſen ſomewhat but not conſiderably. — Fiſh in many parts are ſcarcely of any value at all. In ſeveral provinces, where the corn cannot be diſpoſed of in the vicinity, the price is incredibly low. In others all ſorts of game are in ſuch aſtoniſhing plenty that there are no purchaſers for it. — In general all the neceſſaries of life in the interior of Ruſſia (ſome great towns excepted) are cheaper than in any other country in Europe.

ocean

ocean the merchant can here tranſport his commodities without once being obliged to ſubmit them to viſitation.

In order, however, not to render the ſupport of the inhabitant entirely dependent on the capricious courſe and the fluctuating relations of commerce, the adminiſtration has adopted the prudent meaſure of eſtabliſhing in every government a principal and ſeveral ſmaller granaries; and in the larger towns are public magazines, from which the poorer claſſes of people may be ſupplied with the two moſt indiſpenſable neceſſaries, meal and fire-wood, in moderate quantities, and at a reaſonable price; the crown merely repaying itſelf the capital advanced, without requiring any compenſation for the expence of carriage, ſtoring up, and preſerving, or the cuſtomary duties. By theſe and ſeveral other regulations, which moſtly owe their exiſtence to the late empreſs, it is ſo managed, that a total and abſolute dearth of bread is but rarely felt in particular circles of the poorer governments, whereas formerly it was not unuſual in the northernmoſt provinces, to make up for the failure of flour by pounded tree-bark and other unnatural kinds of aliment*.

By

* It is, however, ſtill a queſtion, whether this *unuſual* food be alſo really *unnatural*, that is, whether it be prejudicial to health and detrimental to population. — That a whole

By the extenſive practice of cultivating potatoes, a new reſource is afforded to the people of theſe countries for enſuring their ſupport; and alſo the gradual tranſition of the nations of the ſteppes from the nomadic way of life to the practice of agriculture is continually opening a more comfortable proſpect for the future.

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whole people in the *conſtant* uſe of ſuch diet could loſe nothing of its phyſical ſtrength and vigour, we have remarkable inſtances in ſeveral of the northern nations, and particularly the Dalecarlians in Sweden "The Dalecarlians," ſays a very accurate obſerver, who ſpent a long time in that country, "inhabit the moſt unfruitful and mountainous "part of the kingdom. The ſummits of their mountains "are covered with eternal ſnow; a long and hard winter "clothes even their vallies in the ſame diſmal garb. Far "from affording them any of the accommodations of life, "their inhoſpitable clime ſcarcely yields them thoſe humble "ſupplies, which by the more ſouthern nations of Europe "are commonly called its firſt indiſpenſable neceſſaries. For "want of corn they are forced to mix their bread with the "bark of certain trees; and even this wretched diet conſti-"tutes their ſole nouriſhment. Unacquainted with the arts "of the ſecond order which provide for the conveniences of "life, and from the nature of their ſoil excluded from "agriculture, they devote themſelves almoſt entirely to the "labours of the mines. From their infancy inured to "every kind of hardſhip, they compoſe, however, of all "the inhabitants of Sweden, the ſtouteſt and the boldeſt "race of men," &c. Hiſtoire de la derniere révolution de Suede, en 1772, p. 157.

A ſecond

A ſecond very material impediment to population is the national propenſity to inflammatory liquors. This propenſity, which ſeems peculiar to the northern nations, and in the eyes of a philoſophical obſerver may be defended by a number of concurrent circumſtances, is nevertheleſs an important object to the government, which in the increaſe of the revenue obtains but a very lamentable compenſation for the loſs it ſuffers in the numbers, ſtrength, durability, and ſervice of its ſubjects. We have heretofore endeavoured to give a ſenſible repreſentation in figures of the worſt ſide of this loſs by a calculation in all probability not exaggerated; no farther remark is therefore neceſſary here for rendering more apparent the extent and the effects of this evil. Indeed the government, by mere ordinances, can in this matter do little or nothing: the total privation of a liquor really wholeſome to the northern countryman would be in many reſpects impracticable, and would be ſcarcely adviſable were it even poſſible. The reſult of the matter then is this, to endeavour at ſome means for ſetting bounds to the intemperate uſe of it; and this is not the work of ten or a dozen years. To alter the manners of a people requires greater and more powerful motives than can be brought into action within the

ſpace

ſpace of one generation. Laws, religion, and education are certainly powerful means, when they combine to one general aim; but their effects will not be viſible till the ſecond or third generation; and even then only under the preſuppoſition that civil proſperity has elevated in the great body of the people the ſentiment of human dignity, and called forth an inclination for the nobler ſatisfactions of life *.

Forced and unequal marriages are likewiſe a hindrance to population, which the government ſhould oppoſe as far as poſſible. It is well known to be not unuſual among the common people in Ruſſia for a young lad to connect himſelf with a much older woman, for the ſake of bringing into the family one perſon more that is able to work; an evil ariſing for the moſt part from the covetouſneſs of the father, and beſides the detriment it occaſions to population has alſo a pernicious influence on morals. — In many parts of the country, where the boors pay their lords a pecu-

* See two excellent treatiſes relative to this ſubject: Revolutions in the diet of Europe, for theſe 300 years paſt, by profeſſor Leidenfroſt; in Schlœtzer's literary correſpondence, tom. viii. book 44, p. 93. — and pieces by the court-counſellor Michaelis of Gottingen, on the methods of weaning a nation from brandy; in Schlœtzer's book which we have ſo often quoted: On the innoxiouſneſs of the ſmall-pox in Ruſſia.

niary

niary tax, in return receiving paſſports with which they may follow their trade all over the empire without moleſtation, the emigrations occaſioned in this manner are the cauſe of unfruitful marriages. Apart from his wife for whole years together, the countryman roams about the diſtant provinces, till the beſt years of his life are over; and the ſtate not unfrequently loſes all the benefit that might reaſonably be expected from ſuch an union *. — Sometimes hard-hearted noblemen refuſe to let a young woman marry when her ſuitor is a youth belonging to another eſtate, or only conſent to ſuch a marriage on condition that ſhe bring another girl in her place, or pay a compenſation in money. — In ſome provinces it was formerly the cuſtom for people who were deſirous to marry, to aſk permiſſion of the governor or commander of the town, for which they were obliged to pay a fee either in money or in cattle †. This pernicious and oppreſſive practice, however, Catharine II. entirely aboliſhed by the manifeſto of grace of the year 1775. — The purchaſe of wives which is cuſtomary among the Samoyedes, the Oſtiaks, the Mordvines, the Tſchuvaſches, Vogules,

* Inſtruction for framing a code of laws, ſect. 269—271.

† Hupel's political conſtitution of the ruſſian empire, tom. i. p. 599.

Tunguſes,

Tunguſes, Votiaks, Buræts, and ſeveral other tartarian tribes, cannot be ſo eaſily ſuppreſſed as an old national practice to which uncultivated people are known to be attached with a ſort of religious reverence; yet there are ſome races, for inſtance, among the Tartars, who have voluntarily and of their own accord relinquiſhed this infamous traffic *. — The queſtion, whether the polygamy of the mohammedan and heatheniſh nations be favourable or detrimental to population, can ſcarcely be ſolved with any certainty, as no liſts of births and deaths are kept in unchriſtian countries; it is however a problem, the ſolution whereof cannot be unintereſting to the ſtate.

The clergy in Ruſſia, it is well known, occaſion no remarkable diſadvantage to population, as all ſecular prieſts, and conſequently by far the greater part of that body, are at liberty to marry. The celibacy of the monks is by the wiſe reſtrictions of the monaſtic life upon the whole of no ſignificance. — Far more ſenſible, on the other hand, is the loſs which population ſuſtains by the ſoldiery. So long as war continues to be a neceſſary evil, this detriment cannot indeed be entirely annihilated: but its noxious effects may

* Pallas, travels, tom. iii. p. 400.

be

be greatly mitigated by prudent and humane regulations. The loſs of men in fighting againſt the enemies of the country is a ſacrifice made by the ſtate for the preſervation of the whole, and for which it is compenſated by advantages which in a ſhort time repair the population again; but the loſs which the army ſuſtains in levying recruits, in quarters of cantonment, in hoſpitals, and on marches, is attended with no compenſation to the ſtate, and therefore can never be guarded againſt with ſufficient precaution. — The regulation which aims at reducing the celibacy of the ruſſian armies and fleets is highly worthy of imitation. A great part of the ſoldiers are actually married; ſeveral border-regiments and garriſon-battalions have pieces of land allotted to them for their ſupport in lieu of pay, or in addition to it, where they are at once uſeful to agriculture and to population. According to an eſtimate made ſome years ago, it was reckoned that in the field regiments alone and a few garriſons, about 18,000 ſons of ſoldiers are taught and maintained at the expence of the ſtate in ſchools appointed for that purpoſe *; ſimilar inſtitutions are kept up for all the regiments of guards.

* On the population of the ruſſian empire; in Hupel's northern miſcellanies, tom. i. p. 125.

Laſtly,

Laſtly, the hard treatment to which the children of the common people are expoſed in their early infancy may be reckoned among the general impediments to population. True it is that they are ſteeled and hardened by this means for the maturer age againſt the changes of climate and the viciſſitudes of weather, to perſeverance, to toil, and patient ſuffering; but what numbers of them periſh in the ſeaſoning, whoſe weaker frame would have been juſt as uſeful to the ſtate! Nor did this remark eſcape the diſcernment of Catharine II. "The boors," ſays the Inſtruction*, "have, generally ſpeaking, twelve, fifteen, to "twenty children by one marriage; but it "rarely happens that the fourth part of them "reach maturity. A fault muſt therefore ne-"ceſſarily lie ſomewhere, either in regard to "nouriſhment, manner of life, or education, by "which this hope of the country is cut off. In "what a flouriſhing ſtate ſhould we behold the "empire, if by wiſe inſtitutions we could obviate "or prevent ſuch a deſtructive evil!"

Theſe may perhaps be the moſt general and moſt material impediments to the progreſs of population. Againſt moſt of them the government has endeavoured to apply the moſt effectual

* Inſtruction for framing a code of laws, chap. xii. ſect. 266.

remedies;

remedies; but inſtitutions, abuſes, and habits, which have become inveterate by the practice of ſucceſſive ages, are not to be rooted out in the ſpace of a ſmall number of years. No prince in modern times has ever made the ſubject of population ſo intimate a concern of government as the late empreſs. From the firſt moment of her reign it was one of the favourite objects of her great and active mind. Not content with having enſured the preſervation of the inhabitants, and weakened or annihilated the obſtacles to population, ſhe moreover applied millions of rubles to the purpoſe of rearing uſeful burghers in the empire, and TO INCREASE THE POPULATION BY AN ACCESSION FROM WITHOUT. — This method, the moſt difficult and tedious of all, was however not ſolely directed to ſo ſimple an end; by the acquiſition and diſtribution of induſtrious people of good morals, the ſeed of a ſuperior civilization would naturally at the ſame time be ſown among the inhabitants of thoſe waſte regions where it grew up and flouriſhed under the benign and foſtering ſceptre of that monarch. The account of that remarkable creation is too intereſting a fragment of the hiſtory of civilization in the ruſſian empire, to be here paſſed over in total ſilence.

So early in her reign as December 1762, Catharine the ſecond publiſhed a manifeſto, in-

viting foreigners upon advantageous terms to come and ſettle in her dominions. In July 1763 the empreſs conſtituted a tutelary chancery for the protection of foreigners, inveſted with equal privileges with the other colleges of the empire. The main deſign of this inſtitution was to take the foreigners into its protection immediately on their ſetting foot in Ruſſia, and forward them according to the directions contained in the manifeſto, to the place of their deſtination. It received annually 200,000 rubles, which, beſides the purchaſe of a building for the uſe of the chancery, was to be ſolely employed in providing ſeed-corn, cow-houſes, implements of huſbandry, &c. for the coloniſts, and in the erection of manufactories. The tutelary chancery were enjoined to procure intelligence concerning all waſte and untenanted places, to direct the conſtruction of new eſtabliſhments, to watch over their maintenance and advancement, and accordingly to keep up a correſpondence with the ruſſian miniſters at foreign courts. They afterwards received an exemption from all reſponſibility excepting to the empreſs herſelf.

Shortly after a ſecond manifeſto appeared, more accurately defining the advantages and gratuities under which foreigners were invited to ſettle in the ruſſian empire. As this ſtate-paper has been adopted as the baſis of all later colonizings,

colonizings, and the precepts contained in it form in ſome degree the civil conſtitution of a numerous and by no means inſignificant claſs of people; it will not be ſuperfluous to give here its moſt material particulars in a ſhort abſtract.

Foreigners of all denominations may ſettle in whatever part of the empire they pleaſe, and to that end need only apply either directly to the tutelary chancery, or in the frontier-towns to the governors and commanders. If their means be not competent to the journey, they will be furniſhed with money by the ruſſian miniſters and reſidents at foreign courts, and conveyed at the imperial expence to Ruſſia. — Exemption from taxes for a ſtated time, which, according to the ſtandard of utility in the colonies, is ſet down at five, ten, and thirty years *; free dwelling for one half year, dating from the day of arrival. — To thoſe who intended to follow the farming buſineſs or ſome trade or manufactures, a tract of arable land adequate to their purpoſes is allotted, and all neceſſary advances at their ſetting out. For the erecting of a dwelling-houſe, for the purchaſe of live ſtock, implements, veſſels, and other materials, the neceſſary money will be ad-

* Moſt of the colonies, however, after that time was elapſed, had a farther grant of immunity from all taxes of whatever nature, for the ſame number of years as before.

vanced without intereſt from the imperial coffers, which after the expiration of ten years is to be paid at three ſeveral inſtalments. — The internal conſtitution of their juriſdiction is left to the option of the coloniſts who eſtabliſh themſelves in whole villages; but always in ſubmiſſion to the common law of the empire. — Importation of property duty-free, and even a quantity of commodities, the value of which for a family ſhall not exceed three hundred rubles. — Exemption from civil and military ſervice. — Refreſhment-money and travelling expences from the frontiers of the empire to the place of their deſtination. — Free ſale and exemption from duties for ten years on the exportation of all articles in the colonies which have not hitherto been produced or wrought up in Ruſſia. — Foreign capitaliſts who ſet up fabrics, manufactories, or workſhops, may buy as many boors and vaſſals as are requiſite to their undertaking. — The colonies may keep fairs and markets without paying any toll. — All theſe advantages extend alſo to the children of the new ſettlers, even though they be born in Ruſſia. Their years of exemption are to be reckoned from the arrival of their parents or anceſtors; after the expiration whereof they are all bound to pay the taxes and ſervices that are cuſtomary in the country: thoſe who are

deſirous

desirous of quitting the empire are at liberty to do so, but on condition that after a stay of five years they pay the fifth; after having been settled from five to ten years, the tenth part of the property they have acquired in the country, into the imperial treasury. Whoever requires distinct privileges, beyond what are granted in the manifesto, may apply for that purpose to the tutelary chancery *.

These invitations and advantages have drawn a great multitude of foreigners, particularly Germans, into Russia. The parts in which they settled to the largest amount were the governments of St. Petersburg, Voronetch, Tschernigof, Ekatarinoslaf, and Saratof. The most numerous colonies fixed upon the last of these on both shores of the Volga and the Medveditza; on which account it was found necessary to erect there a comptoir of the tutelary chancery. After the introduction of the new viceroyalties this department was however abolished as useless, and all the colonies were put under the common jurisdiction. On this occasion the empress remitted to the colonists of Saratof, who, on account of the inconveniences they experienced from their situation and the unfitness of the soil

* Manifesto and ukase concerning the tutelary chancery.

for the purpoſes of agriculture in the parts where they had ſettled, had been obliged to remove to other diſtricts, the whole of the expences of building their houſes, amounting to the ſum of 1,025,479 rubles *.

The coloniſts in the government of Saratof moſtly took to agriculture and the breeding of cattle; yet they have among them many expert handicraftſmen, who have ſettled in the neighbouring towns, where their exquiſite workmanſhip procures them an ample income. But the little manufacturing town of Sarepta, built by the evangelical brethren, or Moravians, is in an eminently flouriſhing ſtate, the neat pieces of workmanſhip executed there being diſpoſed of over all Ruſſia; on which account they have alſo eſtabliſhed conſiderable warehouſes in St. Peterſburg, Reval, and ſeveral other towns. — Since the abolition of the tutelary chancery, the coloniſts, as debtors to the crown, are under the ſuperintendance of the office of exchequer; but matters of police and law are decided by the circle-magiſtracy and other courts. Each colony has, beſides, what is called a colony-court, conſiſting of a preſident annually choſen by the community, with ſome aſſeſſors and elders. The

* Ukaſe bearing date the 20th of April 1782.

eccle-

eccleſiaſtical conſtitution is framed upon the mode of religion which each colony profeſſes; they conſiſt of 57 lutheran, 13 calviniſtic, 30 catholic, and one mixed. The five lutheran and the three calviniſtic clergymen, are under the authority of the college of juſtice at St. Peterſburg, which hitherto ſupplies the place of a chief conſiſtory; the four catholic prieſts, one of whom is always ſuperior, are dependent on the archbiſhop of Mohilef. All the colonies in the government of Saratof, amounting to 101 in number, contained in the year 1790 together 5624 families, which conſiſted of 30,932 perſons *.

In the government of St. Peterſburg the coloniſts chiefly follow agriculture and gardening; as the products of their induſtry fetch a good price in the reſidence, accordingly they all live in eaſy circumſtances. In the government of Tſchernigof, where their number amounts to about 3000, they form five villages, having two churches, one ſerved by a lutheran, and the other by a catholic divine. — But no where is

* Heym's Encyclopædia of the ruſſian empire, p. 137. — Former but very circumſtantial accounts of the colonies on the Volga may be ſeen in Pallas's travels, tom. iii. p. 608 —618. And of the colony of the moravian brethren at Sarepta, id. ib. tom. iii. p. 560 to 567.

the mixture of nations more motley and curious than in the government of Ekatarinoſlaf, which is more than half inhabited by coloniſts. We meet here Germans, Swedes, Italians, german Mennoniſts, Greeks, Bolgarians, Serbians, Arnauts, Albaneſes, and Armenians. The laſt particularly are not only the moſt numerous, but likewiſe in many reſpects the moſt uſeful of the coloniſts of theſe parts. When the peninſula of the Krimea, in the turkiſh war preceding the laſt, was haraſſed by inteſtine commotions, theſe laborious and peaceable people petitioned for protection and an aſylum in the ruſſian territory; the empreſs granted them both, and thus aroſe the flouriſhing colony at Naſchitſchevan, which now holds no inconſiderable a place among the induſtrious manufacturing towns of the empire.

Beſides the great number of foreign ſettlers who came to Ruſſia in conſequence of the abovementioned invitations, and were there eſtabliſhed at the expence of the ſtate, the reputation alone of Catharine's wiſe and benign adminiſtration annually attracted a very conſiderable number of foreigners to her dominions. A country which affords ſo many reſources to induſtry; in which it is always very eaſy, with any degree of diligence and merit, to arrive at reſpect and competence; where a complete toleration and an almoſt unbounded

bounded freedom of trade ſubſiſt, and where the government ſo willingly receives every foreigner: — ſuch a country as this muſt naturally, amidſt the oppreſſions and ſhocks which are felt in a great part of Europe, be a welcome to thouſands of mankind denied protection or bread in their own. Indeed this ſlow and ſcarcely perceptible increaſe which the population of the ruſſian empire receives from year to year, is far greater than would at firſt be imagined, and enriches not only the countries on the coaſts, but even the inland provinces of the empire.

Many other means ſucceſsfully employed by the adminiſtration for augmenting the maſs of people muſt be here paſſed over in ſilence, in order not to entangle ourſelves in too circumſtantial an account. Among theſe are the encouragement and multiplication of the branches of livelihood, whereby the number of perſons in good circumſtances is increaſed as the moſt effectual incitement to matrimony; alſo the uſeful occupation of criminals, who, inſtead of being rendered unſerviceable to civil ſociety, are either employed in the public works or in the colonization of deſert regions. This latter method, which has been practiſed in modern times by England with great ſucceſs, has been long purſued

ſued in Ruſſia, to the very material benefit of the population of the empire. There, in the milder regions of Siberia, where the teeming but uncultivated earth is obliged to confine within itſelf its luxuriant riches, the exile, who by his vices or crimes has forfeited the protection of ſociety, finds a freſh opportunity for becoming happy himſelf, and uſeful to the community, by a numerous and better progeny. Like the other coloniſts the ſtate provides for theſe unfortunate beings, by furniſhing them with the means of future comfort. On their ſettling they are ſupplied with money and materials; and for the three firſt years receive alſo an ample ſtore of proviſions. — In conſequence of theſe wiſe and humane principles Siberia throughout has already gained much in culture. "If we conſider," ſays an eye-witneſs of theſe uſeful colonies *, "that Siberia, not quite two hundred years "ago, was a wilderneſs utterly unknown, and "in point of population was even far behind "the almoſt deſert tracts of North America, we "may juſtly be aſtoniſhed at the preſent ſtate of "this part of the world and at the multitude of "its ruſſian inhabitants, who in numbers greatly

* Pallas, travels, tom. ii. p. 513. tom. iii. p. 7.

"exceed

"exceed the natives. Certainly, as the dif-
"covery and rapid conqueſt of ſo enormous,
"unknown, and perfectly ſavage a tract of coun-
"try, from the Ural to the eaſtern ocean,
"muſt remain an everlaſting monument of the
"genius, the intrepidity, and perſeverance of
"the ruſſian nation: ſo much have we reaſon
"to admire the peopling of it as a maſter-piece
"of political wiſdom!"

SECTION III.

Natural characteriſtics of the Inhabitants.

For completing the picture of the phyſical ſtate of the inhabitants of the ruſſian empire, it remains for us to delineate their bodily character. The more diverſe the modifications to which, from the infinite variety of their natural and moral relations, they muſt be liable, the more ſimple will be the plan we trace out to ourſelves in the preſent ſection. The bodily ſtate of a people is dependent on a thouſand things; nature of the ſoil, climate, weather; way of life, dreſs, food; manners and uſages, even political conſtitution and religion have a deciſive influence on the ſtrength, the durability, the health, in ſhort the whole phyſical character of man-

kind. Some of these relations have already been touched upon in what has gone before, others can only be enlarged on in the sequel; and, unless we intend to swell the present section to the thickness of a volume, we must confine ourselves to general sketches, for which the farther prosecution of this work will furnish ample materials and colouring.

The RUSSIANS are a moderate-sized, vigorous, and durable race of men. The growth and longevity of this people are very different in different districts; but in general rather large than small, and they are commonly well-built. It is very rare to see a person naturally deformed; which doubtless is chiefly owing to their loose garments and the great variety of bodily exercises. All the sports and pastimes of the youth have a tendency to expand the body and give flexibility to the muscles.

Easy as it is occasionally by comparison to discriminate the Russian by his outward make from other Europeans, it will, however, be found very difficult to point out the principal lineaments of the national physiognomy, as speaking features are in general extremely rare. The following may be deemed common and characteristical: a small mouth, thin lips, white teeth, little eyes, a low forehead; the nose has a great variety

variety of forms; it is moſt frequently ſeen to be ſmall and turned upwards. The beard is almoſt always very buſhy; the colour of the hair varies through all the ſhades from dark brown to red, but it is ſeldom quite black. The expreſſion of the countenance is gravity and good-nature or ſagacity. — Hearing and ſight are uſually very acute; but the other ſenſes more or leſs obtuſe by manner of living and climate. The gait and geſtures of the body have a peculiar and often impaſſioned vivacity, partaking, even with the mere ruſtics, of a certain complaiſance and an engaging manner.

The ſame features, on the whole, are conſpicuous in the female ſex, but in general improved, and here and there actually dignified. A delicate ſkin and a ruddy complexion are in the vulgar idea the firſt requiſites of beauty; in fact fine roſy cheeks are perceived more commonly among the ruſſian women than in other countries, but no where is paint ſo eſſential an article of the toilet as here, even among the loweſt claſſes of the people. As the growth of the ruſſian ladies is not confined by any bandages, ſtays, or other compreſſes, the proportions of the parts uſually far exceed the line which the general taſte of Europe has preſcribed for the contour of a fine ſhape. — The early maturity

maturity of girls, at which they generally arrive in the twelfth or thirteenth year, is only to be accounted for, in ſo cold a climate, by the frequent uſe of hot baths, which, while it accelerates this expanſion, alſo brings on an early decay of beauty and ſolidity of bodily frame. Married women ſeldom retain the freſh complexion and the peculiar charms of youth beyond the firſt lying-in. By their baths, their paint, and the great ſubmiſſion in which they live with their huſbands, the moderate ſhare of beauty with which nature has endowed theſe daughters of the northern earth is generally faded at an age when the huſband is juſt entering on his prime.

Among the collateral branches of the ruſſian ſtock but few variations are diſcernible in the bodily form. The Malo-ruſſians have ſomewhat of the Poles in their phyſiognomy; the Don-kozaks partake of the tartarian, and the Ural-kozaks of the tartarian and kalmuc, which proceeds from the commixture, wherein theſe people have long been accuſtomed to live. With all of them, however, the main lineaments are ruſſian, and ſo impoſſible to be miſtaken, that the form of the face alone affords the ſtrongeſt proof of their parentage.

The bodily frame of the Ruſſians is excellent. Their happy organization, their cheerful and blithe temper,

temper, that hardneſs which they oppoſe to every inconveniency, the natural ſimplicity of their manner of living, and their rude, but dry and wholeſome climate, procure to the great maſs of the people a degree of phyſical complacency of which few other nations can boaſt. — The Ruſſians are endowed with a vitality, of which an inſtance has ſcarcely ever yet been found in any other country, as we have ſeen in the foregoing ſection. If the Engliſhman or the Spaniard excels the Ruſſian in bodily ſtrength, the latter is ſuperior to them by far in the endurance, or in the patient ſuffering of ſeverer hardſhips. Hunger and thirſt, want of accommodation and repoſe the Ruſſian can bear longer than any other nation *. — In all the lower claſſes, the

* Of the almoſt incredible endurance of the Ruſſians ſuch proofs are ſeen in the long and toilſome marches of the army, the ſevere corporal puniſhments they undergo, &c. as fill foreigners with amazement. How often is the ruſſian ſoldier obliged to croſs waſte and waterleſs ſteppes, or to paſs the whole winter in little earth cells, without firing and without any other proviſion than his dry biſcuit! How often do we ſee malefactors, after a puniſhment, the very ſight of which makes one ſhudder at every nerve, walk their way back to priſon, without ſupport and without any viſible alteration in their gait! — With all this, however, it is extremely remarkable that the Ruſſian, notwithſtanding this extraordinary paſſive power, if I may ſo expreſs

the ſoldiery excepted, a healthy old age is very common; lively old men of a hundred years are in all parts of Ruſſia no unuſual appearance, but probably the number of them would be far greater if the propenſity to dram-drinking were not the occaſion of ſo great a mortality in the middle periods of life.

There are but few peculiar diſeaſes prevalent among the Ruſſians, and againſt moſt of them they know how to guard themſelves by ſimple diet and domeſtic remedies. The women every where bring forth with great facility, and uſually in the bath-rooms; the number of ſtill-born children is therefore, in compariſon with other countries, extremely ſmall. The ſmall-pox and meaſles carry off not nearly ſo many children as in the greater part of the reſt of Europe; but on the other hand the effects of venereal diſorders are more dangerous and infectious, the virulence of it being unhappily increaſed by the cold. — In

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expreſs myſelf, does not poſſeſs an unuſual degree of bodily ſtrength. To put a burden in motion, or to convey it from its place by people, always in Ruſſia far more men are uſed than in other countries; and that this is not done merely to ſpare them, we may convince ourſelves by every day's experience at the wharfs by the exchange, where an engliſh ſailor will ſometimes lift and carry things which the utmoſt exertions of three Ruſſians would ſeem ſcarcely to move.

Siberia,

Siberia, ſometimes in ſummer, a diſeaſe called by the Germans the luftſeuche or air ſickneſs appears *, an epidemical diſeaſe attacking both man and beaſt. It ſhews itſelf by a bile on ſome part of the body, and, if no ſpeedy aſſiſtance can be had, is mortal, though not infectious; but they have now found out an eaſy and ſafe method of cure. — About the upper Lena croups or goitres are common enough; young people, however, get quit of them on coming to parts where they have better water. — In the neighbourhood of the Caſpian there is a horrible, tedious, and deadly leproſy, which happily, however, becomes leſs and leſs frequent in its attacks, and is generally called, from its former country, the krimean diſeaſe †.

Moſt of the houſehold remedies of the common Ruſſians are truly heroic. A mixture of leeks, garlic, ſpaniſh-pepper, and brandy, ſeems with them to be the grand panacea, and is applied without regard and diſtinction in all diſeaſes of whatever kind and how oppoſite ſoever; ſo alſo aconite, hellebore, and the like, are in high reputation for their medicinal virtues. In pains and aches of the bones or limbs, and in colicky complaints, they burn moxa of artemiſia, &c. on

* Pallas, travels, tom. ii. p. 308. 473. 484.

† Ibid, tom. i. p. 302.

the bare ſkin. — In general the common Ruſſians uſe but few medicines; ſupplying their place in all caſes by the SWEATING BATH, a practice ſo univerſal among them, and which has ſo decided an influence on the whole phyſical ſtate of the people, that we muſt abſolutely dwell a little longer upon it *.

The uſe of the bath, that venerable relict of the manners of the antient world, is now almoſt entirely confined to the oriental nations, where it miniſters both to health and to luxury, and is perpetuated by religion. In Europe it has been gradually declining for ſeveral centuries, though it was here alſo in ſome ſort interwoven with religion †; Ruſſia and Hungary are at preſent the only countries in this quarter of the world, where it is ſtill the cuſtom to bathe after the manner of the antients. In Ruſſia particularly the bath makes ſo much a part of the ſyſtem of living, that it is uſed by people of every age and in all circumſtances, by infants, by women at their lying-in, in almoſt all ſickneſſes, before and after a journey, after hard work, &c. The bath is a neceſſary of life ſo indiſpenſable to the

* See the excellent tract of profeſſor Schlœtzer on the harmleſſneſs of the ſmall-pox in Ruſſia.

† The holy-water in the roman-catholic church is a ſlight remnant of it.

common

common people, that they frequent it as often as poſſible, well or ill, and without any particular occaſion, once a week at leaſt. Perſons of the middle ſtations, in good circumſtances, and the great, uſually conſtruct vapour-baths after the ruſſian faſhion in their own houſes; though in theſe claſſes the practice is becoming more confined as foreign manners gain ground among them.

The baths have been common throughout Ruſſia from time immemorial; they are deſcribed by Neſtor ſo long ago as the eleventh century preciſely as they are conſtituted at preſent. — Among the antients the baths were public buildings, under the immediate cognizance of the government. Their invention was owing to cleanlineſs and convenience; but in the ſequel all the graces of architecture were laviſhed upon them, and at length luxury and voluptuouſneſs ſo diſtorted them from their primitive purpoſes, that they were offenſive and ſhocking even to the moraliſts of antiquity. Alexander was aſtoniſhed at the magnificence of the baths in Perſia: at Rome, under the emperors, there were once 870 of theſe edifices, that in point of magnificence and taſte might paſs for maſter-pieces of art; and which were doomed in after-times to be demoliſhed by the

Goths, or converted into churches by biſhops. — In our days Hungary is the only country that can ſtill ſhew baths equal in magnificence to thoſe of the antient Romans. In Ruſſia, on the contrary, they are always of that ſimple conſtruction which beſpeaks their primitive and moſt eſſential deſtination.

Here the public baths * uſually conſiſt of mean wooden houſes, ſituate, whenever it is poſſible, by the ſide of a running ſtream. In the bath-room is a large vaulted oven, which when heated makes the paving-ſtones lying upon it red-hot; and adjoining to the oven is a kettle fixed in maſonry, for the purpoſe of holding boiling water. Round about the walls are three or four rows of benches one above another like the ſeats of a ſcaffold. The room has little light, but here and there are apertures for letting the vapour eſcape: the cold water tha is wanted being let in by ſmall channels. Some baths have an anti-chamber for dreſſing and un-

* They are called public becauſe they are under the care of the police, and are let out to common people on the crown's account; farther than this the government takes no concern either about their erection or their management. Out in the country they are entirely free. — The produce from the contract is trifling. At leaſt, in the year 1723, in the whole empire it amounted to no more than 37,957 rubles.

dreſſing;

dreſſing; but in moſt of them this is done in the open court-yard, which on that account has a boarded fence, and is provided with benches of planks.

By far the majority of the baths are conſtructed as they are here deſcribed. In the country, in parts where wood is ſcarce, they ſometimes conſiſt of miſerable caverns, commonly dug in the earth cloſe to the bank of ſome river. In the houſes of wealthy individuals, and in the palaces of the great, they are formed upon the ſame conſtruction but infinitely more elegant and convenient.

The heat in the bath-room is uſually at from 32 to 40 degrees of Reaumur, and that greatly increaſed by the throwing of water every five minutes on the glowing hot ſtones in the chamber of the oven. By this means the heat often riſes, eſpecially on the uppermoſt bench to 44 degrees of that thermometer. — The bathers lie, ſtark-naked, on one of the benches, where they perſpire more or leſs in proportion to the heat of the humid atmoſphere in which they are enveloped. In order the better to promote perſpiration and completely to open the pores, they are firſt rubbed, and then gently flagellated with leafy bunches of birch. After remaining awhile they come down from the ſweating-bench, and

waſh their body with warm or cold water, and at laſt plunge over head in a large tub of water. Many people throw themſelves immediately from the bath-room into the adjoining river, as the youths of antient Rome uſed to leap into a pond after the violent exerciſe of wreſtling, or roll themſelves in the ſnow in a froſt of ten or more degrees.

The ruſſian baths, therefore, are SWEATING-BATHS; not the roman tepidaria and caldaria of a moderate warmth, but very violent ſweating-baths, which to a perſon unhabituated to the practice bring on a real, though a gentle and almoſt voluptuous ſwoon. They are VAPOUR-BATHS, not water nor yet dry ſweating-baths; herein they differ from all the baths of antiquity as well as from thoſe of the modern orientals; and this is alſo their eſſential excellence, that they are beneficial in ſuch a variety of caſes where hot-water baths would be uſeleſs or even pernicious. They are, farther, SALUTARY-BATHS, as they promote cleanlineſs, aſſiſt the perſpiration, render the ſkin ſoft and ſmooth, &c. and not voluptuous baths as among the Greeks and Romans. All the inventions of effeminacy and luxury are entirely obviated; of anointing after the uſe of the bath (which in Rome was held ſo indiſpenſable a requiſite, that

even

even the emperors diſtributed oil among the people) the Ruſſian is perfectly ignorant. Inſtead of this the ſudden tranſition from heat to a rigorous froſt hardens his body to all the ſeverities of climate, to every viciſſitude of weather; a tranſition which ſeems unnatural or dangerous to us, only from the prejudices of a ſoft and effeminate age *.

It is not to be doubted that the Ruſſians owe their longevity, their robuſt ſtate of health, their little diſpoſition to certain mortal diſeaſes, and their happy and cheerful temper, moſtly to theſe baths; though climate, aliment, and habits of living likewiſe contribute their ſhare. — The great lord chancellor Bacon, and other ſagacious obſervers of nature and of mankind, have lamented, and certainly not without cauſe, that this bathing has fallen into diſuſe among the modern nations of Europe, and juſtly wiſh the practice back again in all our towns and villages. In fact, when we conſider that the old phyſicians

* The turkiſh ladies, who certainly need not yield in point of delicacy to thoſe of Europe, bear this ſudden alteration equally well with the ruſſian populace. They continue bathing, according to the teſtimony of lady Mary Wortley Montague, at leaſt four or five hours together, and without catching cold, though they go immediately from the hot bath into the cool apartment: — which was naturally very ſurpriſing to the engliſh lady.

ſo early introduced into their practice this remedy of nature's own invention, and employed it with ſuch great ſucceſs; when we recollect that Rome for five hundred years together had no phyſicians but only baths, and that to this day a multitude of nations cure almoſt all their maladies merely by baths; we cannot avoid regarding the diſmiſſion of them as the epocha of a grand revolution which has been wrought in the phyſical ſtate of the human race in our quarter of the world.

The natural perſpiration, the moſt important of all excretions, muſt naturally go on better in a body conſtantly kept ſoft by bathing. A great number of impurities which privily lay in us the train to tedious and dangerous diſtempers, are timely removed ere they poiſon the blood and the juices. All exanthematic diſeaſes are abated by bathing, conſequently then the ſmall-pox; and if this dreadful diſorder be actually leſs fatal in Ruſſia than in other countries, this phænomenon need not be attributed to any other cauſe than the vapour-baths *.

The Poles, related to the Ruſſians by deſcent and language, have alſo in their bodily frame ſo

* See on this ſubject, in Schlœtzer's above-quoted work, the diſſertation of Dr. Sanchez: De cura variolarum vaporarii ope apud Ruſſos, &c.

much

much ſimilarity with them, as would make it plainly perceptible that the two nations originate from the ſame ſtock, if the difference of the national character were not ſo very ſtriking. On the whole the Poles are of a larger, drier, and more fleſhy caſt; their countenance is open and friendly; their bodily ſtructure is well-proportioned, and only the neck is commonly thicker with them than is uſual among the other european nations. The men of all ranks wear whiſkers, and ſhave their heads in ſuch manner that only a lock of hair remains on the crown; a particularity which gives them in the eyes of other Europeans a foreign and almoſt an aſiatic appearance. The female ſex are famed for their beauty over all the north; to the peculiar advantages of figure, they have alſo a delicate ſhape, ſmall elegant feet and fine long hair. The ſame flexibility, which we noticed among the Ruſſians, is alſo obſervable among the Poles: their looks in common intercourſe are far more animated and lively.

Firm and laſting as the corporal ſtructure of the Poles ſeems to be, and great as the tendency of their education and way of life is to harden the common people; yet the hoſt of diſeaſes to which this nation is liable is comparatively greater than that of their neighbours. Whether it

it be the quality of the atmoſphere, which is rendered unwholeſome by the numerous and large moraſſes, and by the ſituation of the carpathian mountains receives a peculiar acridity; whether it ariſes from the want of good potable water, or the uncleanly way of living ſo conſpicuous in the majority of the inhabitants: it is, however, a ſingular circumſtance, that Poland is viſited by more violent and malignant diſeaſes, and that theſe are here more infectious and dangerous, than in the more northerly Ruſſia.

In the poliſh provinces which now belong to the ruſſian empire, eſpecially in Volhynia and the Ukraine, where the country, however, in compariſon with Lithuania, is elevated and dry, diſorders of the breaſt, intermittent fevers, ſmall-pox, worms, plica polonica, itch, and venereal infections, are the moſt current diſeaſes. Epidemical diſeaſes are rare; but none of them commit ſuch depredations as the ſmall-pox, which is partly to be aſcribed to bad treatment and diet, but principally to the careleſſneſs of the people. Little as the common Turks give themſelves any concern to guard againſt the plague; not a whit more does the poliſh peaſant take any pains to ward off the infection of the moſt dangerous ſmall-pox. The ſick and healthy lie together with the cattle in a very ſmall inclo-

cloſure;

cloſure; the compreſſed exhalations, and the uſually immoderate heat of the room, impart to this malady ſuch a degree of malignity, that it ſeems little ſhort of a miracle that any one of theſe unfortunate creatures ſhould eſcape with his life.

The ravages of this diſorder are, even in regard to the rude climate, every where great. We may confidently ſtate the mortality at ſix or ſeven out of ten; and ſuch as eſcape this fate are almoſt always cruelly diſfigured. Hence it is alſo that no country in Europe ſo ſwarms with blind people as Poland. If we except thoſe who are become ſo by the plica polonica, the remainder may impute this dreadful calamity to the ſmall-pox *. — Inoculation is only practiſed in large towns, in the country it is almoſt entirely unknown; and where the introduction of it has been here and there attempted, it has been conſtantly oppoſed by the national prejudice ſo obſtinate as not to be conquered.

Preternatural births are extremely rare; of 800 or 1000 there ſcarcely happens one where any obſtetrical art is neceſſary.

* De la Fontaine, miſcellaneous diſſertations on phyſic and ſurgery relating to Poland. Breſlau, 1792, 8vo. p. 111, 112.

The

The venereal diſeaſe in great towns is in the ratio of ſix to ten; ſo generally has this dreadful evil ſpread. In the country it is proportionately not leſs prevalent; once it happened that of 100 recruits 80 were infected. — Of the various modifications of this ſubtile peſtilence, none are more frequently obſerved than venereal ulcers in the noſe; and there is perhaps no country in Europe where we meet with more perſons without noſes than in Poland. The ſevere northern climate, and the ſuppreſſed perſpiration which is almoſt always a conſequence of it, exaſperate this diſeaſe ſo much that even one brought by a Pole from a warmer country is eaſier to cure than one caught in Poland *.

All the diſtempers which we have now been mentioning, Poland has in common with the other nations of our part of the globe; but the matted hair is an affliction altogether peculiar to that country; and therefore claims, on this account, as well as that of its very general diffuſion, to be rather more circumſtantially mentioned here.

The matted-locks, clotted hair, or plica polonica, is an endemial diſeaſe in Poland and ſome

* De la Fontaine, miſcellaneous diſſertations on phyſic and ſurgery relating to Poland. Breſlau, 1792. 8vo. p. 129—144.

of

of the adjacent countries *, in which the morbid matter critically ſettles in the hair, and clots it together in ſo peculiar a manner, that it cannot by any means be diſentangled or combed out. The matter of the diſeaſe, however, does not always depoſit itſelf in the hair alone, but ſettles

* This diſeaſe is now traced from the ſource of the Viſtula (to which it is indebted for its name) into the carpathian mountains, Lithuania, White and Red Ruſſia, and Tartary. — When and in what region it may have firſt ariſen, cannot be preciſely aſcertained. It was unknown to the Greeks, the Romans, and the Arabians. Some modern writers place its origin in Europe in the year 1387, and affirm that it was brought into Poland by the Tartars. — If this aſſertion were actually proved, it would amply repay our pains to examine why the clotted-locks have not become endemial alſo in Ruſſia by means of the Tartars, as it is well known that a great part of this empire was long under tartarian ſupremacy, and the intercourſe between the two nations was ſo great. At any rate it is a remarkable phænomenon that ſo infectious a diſeaſe, conſidering the cloſe vicinity and the conſtant traffic carried on between Poland and Ruſſia, and the great ſimilarity in mode of life, climate, and aliment, has not found its way among the latter people. Conſequently, the ground of it muſt lie either in the local-quality of Poland, (which however de la Fontaine abſolutely denies,) or there muſt be ſome circumſtance in the ruſſian way of living, which diminiſhes or annihilates their diſpoſition to this malady. May not perhaps the vapour-baths produce this beneficial effect? At leaſt we are aſſured on good authority that warm vapours and medicines for promoting perſpiration are among the moſt neceſſary requiſites to a cure.

ſometimes

ſometimes alſo in the nails of the fingers and toes.

This dangerous and loathſome diſeaſe ſpares neither age nor ſex, nor condition, not even foreigners newly arrived in Poland; nay, infants at times bring it with them into the world. The lower claſſes of people are however the moſt ſubject to it, boors, beggars, and jews. In Volhynia and the Ukraine this diſeaſe is among the common people in the ratio of two or three to ten; among the nobility and the ſubſtantial burghers, as two to thirty or forty. Many thouſands of perſons paſs their whole lives entirely free from it; others have it ſeveral times, and ſometimes even at regular periods. Hair of all colours is equally liable to it; but moſtly the light-brown. The ſofter the hair the more eaſily does the morbid matter paſs into it. The diſeaſe is alſo infectious; it is either innate, or communicated by nurſes, by ſleeping in the ſame bed with an infected perſon, or by clothes. — Even brutes are expoſed to the plica polonica, eſpecially thoſe which have long hair.

The proximate cauſe of this diſeaſe is a ſort of humour with which phyſicians are ſtill unacquainted, and is not leſs difficult to be aſcertained than the venereal, the ſcorbutic, &c. Thus much however is apparent, that it is a peculiarly viſcous

viſcous and acrid matter, which has its ſeat in the lymph, and makes a depoſit in the hair or the nails, which depoſition is to be regarded as a criſis. The cauſes of this matter it is not eaſy to aſcertain; for neither air, nor water, nor food ſeem directly to contribute any thing to the enucleation of this diſeaſe; cleanlineſs and frequent combing of the hair are no ſecurity againſt it; neither do other diſtempers ſeem to take part in the cauſes of this affliction, though they greatly exaſperate it when the patient is at the ſame time attacked by them.

The tranſit of the matter of the plica polonica into the hair happens when it is ſeparated from the common maſs of the juices and is ſufficiently prepared for a criſis. Ere this criſis comes on, the patient has frequently much to ſuffer; but ſometimes the clots form without his feeling the leaſt previous indiſpoſition. If the phyſician be not ſo fortunate as to draw off the morbid matter into the hair or into the nails, or this be not effected by nature herſelf, then the caſe of the patient is extremely dangerous: for if the morbid matter fall on any of the nobler parts, on the brain, or the lungs, or the ſtomach, it brings on the moſt cruel of mortal diſeaſes; if it flow to the eyes, it cauſes inflammations, cataracts, &c. if it be ſo acrimonious and corroſive as to attack the

the marrow in the bones, then the diſeaſe is generally incurable, and the patient dies in the moſt excruciating torments.

As ſoon as the criſis has happened to the hair or nails, all bad ſymptoms ceaſe, and the patient gets well by degrees; but if the ſymptoms return, it is then a ſure ſign that there is ſtill a portion of the matter remaining in the juices, which ſhould likewiſe paſs into thoſe parts. It frequently happens, when the morbid matter is too copious to be entirely abſorbed by the hairs, that they ſnap in the middle, and it oozes out between them in great quantity, when the patient is plagued with vermin to ſuch a degree as cannot be deſcribed. But that the hair ſhould be ſo diſtended that blood flows out of it, as ſome antient authors have aſſerted, is by no means the fact. — When the clotted-lock is completely formed, benignant nature takes care to repel the miſchief by producing new hairs, which forcibly, as it were, ſeparate the clotted-lock from the head. This happens, though but ſeldom, in a few days or weeks, but ordinarily in the ſpace of from one to four months, but ſometimes not till the next ſpring.

The method of treating this diſguſting and often extremely dangerous diſeaſe, is naturally very various, according to the different ſymptoms

and courſe of it. Both inward and outward remedies muſt be employed. At its very firſt appearance endeavours muſt be uſed to thin and mitigate the tough acrimonious matter to fit it for paſſing into the hair. As ſoon as the criſis comes on, medicines that promote perſpiration muſt be applied, unleſs there be any degree of fever. When the criſis is once over, there is no longer any reaſon for apprehending that the morbid matter will return to the maſs of blood; excepting in the caſe when a clotted-lock is cut off, into which the morbid matter had not yet fully paſſed *. The principal outward remedies are

* The clotted-lock may be cut off without any danger, when it hangs to ſound freſh-grown hair, and has loſt its peculiar ſtench, fat, and gloſs. For being quite ſecure about it, at firſt let only ſome of the points be cut off daily; if no bad effects enſue, it may then be entirely abſcinded from the head, that is, in the after-grown hair; but (what is extremely curious) not without pain in the waiſt. — The dreadful conſequences of too early an abſciſſion have made the people ſo fearful, that they will ſeldom allow the clotted-lock to be cut off, even when it can be done without danger. Hence it is obſervable, particularly among the common people, that they bear their clotted-locks till they fall off of themſelves, or, if this do not happen, they go to the grave with them. — The national cuſtom of ſhaving the head probably took its riſe from the notion that by ſo doing this diſeaſe would be prevented. But, as we have

are warm vapour bathing and waſhing the hair with vegetable decoctions. — When all outward and inward applications to diſentangle the clotted-lock have been tried to no purpoſe, inoculation will effect it, by cauſing the patient to put on a hood or cap which has been worn by one infected with a freſh plica *.

The lower claſs of people in general but rarely apply to a phyſician, commonly, either from poverty or from prejudice, uſing no other remedy than ſuch as are known to them from vulgar experience. Happily the diet of the poliſh boors, on the whole, is the moſt harmleſs, becauſe the moſt ſimple, that can be conceived. Every kind of animal food, if not totally unknown to them, is at leaſt very ſeldom put upon their homely board. Various ſorts of grits, pulſe, and potatoes, are their common nouriſhment. Sour cabbage, ſour turneps, ſour-crout, and other antiſeptics, they eat in incredible quantities. One ſpecies of national food deſerves particular notice, which is called "Barſzez." This

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ſeen, the hair is exactly the ſafeſt conductor ſelected by Nature herſelf, for diſcharging the morbid matter from the maſs of blood; and it is truly amazing that the poliſh nation, after ſo long experience, has not aboliſhed ſo pernicious a practice.

* La Fontaine, paſſim, p. 5—50.

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is a ſoup, in which barley or grits is boiled with red turneps or cabbage made ſour, and which affords at once a well-taſted and wholeſome food. It is above all things to this meſs that the Pole is indebted for being leſs liable to the ſcurvy, from the foul air that he breathes in his narrow ſtrongly heated room, than he otherwiſe would be. And ſtill leſs would he feel it if intemperance in drinking were not ſo much greater among the vulgar than in any other country *.

The LITHUANIANS in their bodily ſtructure are between the Poles and the Ruſſians, but are ſhorter than either. Crouching under the weight of ſlavery and want, their phyſical character alſo bears the marks of that degradation to which that once ſo flouriſhing a nation is ſunk. — In ſalubrity, however, they are far better than in outward circumſtances: we find among them fewer diſeaſes than among the Poles. Almoſt all the diſtricts of Lithuania that border on the Baltic are marſhy and wet; yet intermittent

* The account which de la Fontaine gives in theſe lines of the way of living and diet of the Poles, is likewiſe literally adapted to the ruſſian nation; potatoes only excepted, which in Ruſſia are little cultivated and eaten. The "Borſchtſch," as it is called in ruſs, is, properly ſpeaking, peculiar to the Ukraine; but is alſo ſeen in all parts of Ruſſia, and even on the tables of the foreigners in St. Peterſburg, being deemed a wholeſome, well-taſted ſoup.

fevers are extremely rare; alſo the clotted-locks and venereal taints are leſs common that in what was heretofore called Great and Little Poland. The ratio of the former being here among the lower orders as four to forty, and among the higher as three to ninety or a hundred. Cutaneous eruptions, itch, ſcrofula, hectic complaints, and fevers, are among their moſt current diſorders; no diſeaſe is however ſo common as worms. Inoculation for the ſmall-pox is here ſtill totally unknown.

The deſcription which we have here to make of the LETTES is not much more favourable. The two nations, as in the traits of their hiſtory, bear alſo a ſtrong reſemblance in the features of their face; hard ſervice, want of all ſuperior cultivation, deſtitution of the neceſſaries of life are deeply imprinted on their phyſiognomy in legible characters. The Lettes are very ſhort of ſtature; among the women particularly are many, who, in compariſon with other nations, might paſs for dwarfs. In tolerable circumſtances their bodies ſoon become fleſhy: but, from the accounts of impartial eye-witneſſes, luſty people are ſeldom ſeen. None of the Lettes are equal in ſtrength to the german peaſantry, eſpecially as to what concerns lifting and carrying: nevertheleſs, they endure to an aſtoniſhing degree the

extremities of froſt and heat and continued rains, likewiſe hard work with but little ſleep, to all which climate, mode of living, and habit greatly contribute. The hot-bath is likewiſe much in uſe among the Lettes, who, like the Ruſſians, go from the extreme heat of them immediately into the open air; accordingly they are ſeldom heard to complain of defluxions, rheums, catarrhs, and toothachs. In general they are but little acquainted with prevailing ſickneſſes; both plenty and want ſeem equally well to agree with their conſtitutions; even to a very advanced age their teeth are firm and ſound, and generally very white. Spirituous liquors, of which they are extremely fond, ſeem to do no injury to their health. — The women bring forth with much eaſe, commonly without aſſiſtance, and ſtanding. Infirm children are rarely ſeen; they are ſwathed only for a ſhort time, very ſoon crawl upon the ground in all weathers quite naked, and their nurſes themſelves are children of five or ſix years old *.

The nations of the FINNISH race, like moſt of the northern people, are but of a middling height. The characteriſtics of their phyſiognomy are as follows: a flat face with ſunk cheeks, dark-grey

* Hupel's topographical accounts of Livonia and Eſthonia, tom. ii. p. 121—194.

eyes, a thin beard, tawny hair, and a ſallow complexion. This deſcription is particularly applicable to the Laplanders; among the Finns the figure is ſomewhat ameliorated by better living and culture, yet the caſt of the viſage is the ſame. The Tſcheremiſſes and the Tſchuvaſhes, in their bodily conformation have more of the tartarian; while the Mordvines approach nearer to the Ruſſians, and the Vogules to the Kalmuks. The laſt, as well as the Oſtiaks, betray their mungrel origin by their dark hair, as the auburn colour of it is characteriſtic of all the genuine finniſh nations.

The healthy ſtate of the finniſh people proceeds from their climate and manner of life. They are all of a ſtrong make, and know little of bodily ailments; but their exceſſive propenſity to inflammatory liquors undermines their phyſical vigour. — With the Laplanders the mortality among the children, from the want of nurſing and care, is very great; and few aged people are ſeen among them. Their moſt common diſeaſes are itch, pulmonary diſorders, putrid fevers, broken bones, (which frequently happen by their climbing the enormous mountains of ſnow and ice,) and diſtempers of the eyes, a conſequence of dazzling light from the ſnow and the ſmoke of their huts. Beſides a number of

ſuperſtitious

ſuperſtitious rites and ſacrifices adopted againſt theſe maladies, in inward complaints they principally have recourſe to the warm blood of a freſh-killed rein-deer, and in outward ailments to the cautery of burning fungus. No Laplander will venture to marry till he have firſt killed a rein-deer with his own hand. Sterility among the women is diſgraceful, but rare; they bring their children into the world with great facility, and always on that occaſion enjoy the aſſiſtance of their huſbands. — The Finns are univerſally great eaters, and, in ſpite of their ſtrong paſſion for brandy, not unfrequently attain to a very advanced age. The diſeaſes common among them are dropſy, ſcurvy, the falling ſickneſs, and above all hypochondria. — The other finniſh nations know little or nothing of theſe maladies; it is however very remarkable, that the ſmall-pox were known among the Oſtiaks previous to the arrival of the Ruſſians *.

The TARTAR ſtem divides into ſo many branches, and the mode of living and government of them, even within the ruſſian empire, are ſo various and diſtinct, that a general delineation of them would be next to impoſſible.

* Deſcription of all the nations of the ruſſian empire, *art.* FINNS.

Several tartarian tribes, by commixture with other nations, have obliterated their original impreſſion; and by the exchange of their civil conſtitution, their religion, and their manners, they have alſo ſo much disfigured their phyſical character, that, were it not for hiſtorical accounts, we ſhould ſcarcely be able to trace out their origin. This may particularly be affirmed of every branch of the ſiberian Tartars, which, for the moſt part, now bear only the names of their patriarchal relatives, and ſince their ſettlement in that vaſt deſert region are become either true Ruſſians, or a motley breed from all the ſurrounding nations. Of the proper Tartars thoſe of Kazan, Aſtrakhan, and the Krimea have retained their national peculiarity even in externals, and therefore theſe are they with whom we are to ſeek out the characteriſtic marks of their bodily ſtructure.

The genuine unmingled Tartar is of middling ſtature and lean. His head has an oval form, the complexion is freſh and lively; the mouth and eyes are ſmall, the latter moſtly black and always expreſſive; the hair dark-brown, the teeth firm and white. The Tartars are in general a very well-made people, and their diſcreet and modeſt behaviour imparts to their ſlender make an agreeable appearance which is not eaſy

to

to be deſcribed. Among the female ſex, though there are but few who can, ſtrictly ſpeaking, be called beauties; yet the open friendly countenance, the blooming hue of health, and the harmonious proportion of all the limbs, give them ſuch charms as we do not every day meet with even among european ladies. — This complete and noble ſhape is however only the inheritance of real Tartars, and loſes itſelf more or leſs in the collateral branches of this people. The Baſchkirs, for example, have much flatter faces, larger ears, ſtronger limbs, and are more fleſhy. With the Kirghiſes the little tartarian eyes are ſtill leſs; and the Teleutes and Yakutes bear in their form traces not to be miſtaken of their commixture with Mongoles and Kalmuks.

The Tartars in general have a very good laſting conſtitution, and their ſimple manner of life, their temperance, and cleanlineſs, ſecure them for the moſt part from all malignant and contagious diſeaſes; the ſmall-pox excepted, which ſeldom rage among them, but when they do, the havoc they commit is the greater. Temperance and cleanlineſs among the Tartars are not merely popular habits but are a law of their religion. The Koran commands them to waſh ſeveral times a day, and particularly delivers rules of conduct to the female ſex in all ſituations.

tions. It interdicts the use of wine and spirits, and thus saves the faithful from all that legion of mortal ills that follow on intemperance. Not so salutary and dietetic is the command which enjoins abstinence from all manner of food; the Tartars count annually two hundred and five fast-days, on which they are not only prohibited to eat certain meats, but they must totally abstain from all nourishment so long as the sun is visible in the horizon. — Though the Koran allows of polygamy, yet it is rarely customary for people of the poorer or inferior sort to take more than one wife; opulent persons have commonly two, and extremely few go beyond that number.

The farther we advance from the bounds of our european quarter of the globe, the more singular and different are the figures we meet in which the inexhaustible fancy of Nature has shaped the noblest of her creatures. What a transition from the pure harmonious form of the Tartars to the fantastical combinations that prevail in the features and bodily structure of the MONGOLIAN nations!

The Kalmuks are commonly of a middling stature; they are strong built, and rather meagre than fleshy. The face is so flat, that the skull of a Kalmuk can be distinguished from a thousand. The little narrow eyes, with the pointed corners

running to the nose and the temples, are particularly characteristic. The nose is compressed and small, the chin short, the lips thick, the late growing beard very scanty, the teeth white and even. The large ears stand wide from the head: the complexion copper-coloured or tawny, but the hair black. In consequence of riding so much on horseback, and from their usual posture in sitting, the Kalmuks are generally bow-kneed at an early period of life. Feeling and taste are in most of them very obtuse, the other senses generally acute. The female sex are only distinguished from the same form by their smallness and a very delicate skin. — Notwithstanding the duration for which the bodies of the Kalmuks seem to be constructed, malignant diseases are extremely frequent among them. The small-pox are usually mortal; putrid fevers and the venereal disease carry off a great part of their population, and the itch is a peculiar malady, which shews itself here particularly obstinate, and is attended by bad consequences. Schoolmasters are at the same time physicians; their principal remedies consist in rhubarb, drugs, the grease and brain of animals, moxa of artemisia, and the like.

The Burætes resemble the Kalmuks in outward form as far as some slight variations. We find, for

for example, more luſty people among the former; their growth of hair is not ſo copious, and many of their men never get a beard. The countenance is ſallow; the bodily ſtructure has but little ſolidity or ſtrength: a Ruſſian of equal age and ſize always weighs more than a Buræt, and will beat ſeveral of them in boxing. — Notwithſtanding this feeble conſtitution, the Buræts are, however, a very healthy people, though they ſeldom attain to an advanced age. The ſmall-pox was formerly very deſtructive to them; but ſince an inoculation-hoſpital has been inſtituted at Irkutſk, the mortality occaſioned by it ſeems to be greatly diminiſhed. The Buræts now bring thither not only their children in multitudes, but they very frequently inoculate themſelves. The itch, which is very uſual among them, is a conſequence of their manner of living, food, and clothing. In chronical diſeaſes they uſe the warm-baths on the eaſt-ſide of the lake Baikal. Their phyſicians are the Schamanes, who pretend to heal them more by ſacrifices, incantations, and ſpells than by natural means. — The Mongoles in their phyſical conſtruction approach more to the Kalmuks than to the Buræts.

Of all the ſiberian nations the TUNGUSES are moſt diſtinguiſhed by their greater ſymmetry of

of form. They are usually of the middling size, well grown, and slender: the face is less flat than with the Kalmuks; the eyes are little but lively, and the nose is likewise small but well-shaped: the beard is seldom bushy, and their hair is black. Sight and hearing are astonishingly acute. The female sex are well-shaped and of an agreeable figure. — Of diseases they know but little; properly speaking there are among them none at all. Nevertheless they seldom live to be old, which is owing partly to the climate, partly to their toilsome and perilous manner of life. The small-pox occasionally appears among them, and then commits great ravages. Their idolatrous priests are at the same time their physicians.

As we approach nearer to the north pole both the animal and vegetable productions of nature become more and more stunted. The ordinary stature of the SAMOYEDES seldom exceeds four or five feet, and their whole exterior corresponds with their dwarfish size. They are commonly squat built, and have short legs; the head is thick and smooth, the nose flat, the lower part of the visage prominent, the mouth and ears are large, the lips thin; and the whole animated by a pair of little, black, long-slit eyes. To so many beauties are superadded a tawny skin shining

ſhining with greaſe, and black briſtly hair, which, though ſparingly ſcattered, is carefully plucked up. The female ſex are rather more ſlender, but withal leſs, and on the whole quite as hideous; their maturity comes on very early, but fades ſo much the earlier for propagation. Moſt of the girls are mothers in their eleventh or twelfth year; but their marriages are rarely prolific, and before the thirtieth year they have already done bearing.

The ſame bodily ſtructure and the ſame features of face, ſubject to many variations from hideous to more hideous, are applicable likewiſe to the eaſt-ſiberian tribes. The KAMTSCHADALES are equally dwarfiſh, only more broad-ſhouldered; thick head, long flat face, little eyes, thin lips, ſtraggling hair, are here likewiſe the chief lineaments of the human form. The kamtſchadale women, on the other hand, form ſome exception to this delineation; they are praiſed, at leaſt, for a fine white ſkin, very little hands and feet, and withal a better proportion of limbs. — The Kamtſchadales are ſubject to few illneſſes, but cripples are very frequent among them, occaſioned by their dangerous journies and occupations. The moſt current diſorders are the ſcurvy and the venereal diſeaſe; the latter was known among them before the

the arrival of the Ruſſians. The dazzling reflection of the ſnow, which here lies on the ground during the greater part of the year, is the cauſe of frequent inflammation of the eyes. The ſmall-pox is ſo malignant among this people, from their living chiefly on fiſh and other aliment that eaſily turn to putrefaction, that, like the plague, it uſually carries off a whole generation when once it begins to be rife. Inoculation, however, has been long in practice among them; every Kamtſchadale performs this operation on himſelf, by means of a fiſh-bone dipped in the variolous pus. — Both men and women are alike of a warm temperament; the acrid juices engendered in theſe ichthyophagi by food, climate, and mode of life, give them an incredible propenſity to voluptuouſneſs. The women bear eaſily and are very fruitful.

The form of the TSCHUKTSCHES and KORYÆKES differs ſo much from that of the Kamtſchadales, that theſe people muſt neceſſarily be of a different origin. The former are principally diſtinguiſhed by a ſmall head and a round meagre face. — The KURILS incline towards the Japanneſe, and are much better ſhaped; a great part of theſe iſlanders have ſuch a quantity of hair over their whole body, that they are often for that reaſon called the hairy Kurils.

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On the contrary, with the ALEUTANS, even the beard is very ſcanty, and the ſkin completely white; and their figure on the whole is rather agreeable *.

* Deſcription of all the nations that compoſe the ruſſian empire. — Travels of the academicians, paſſim. — Storch's hiſtoriſch-ſtatiſtiſches gemælde des ruſſiſchen reichs, &c. tom. i.

VIEW

OF THE

RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

BOOK IV.

OF THE SEVERAL RANKS OR CLASSES OF THE SUBJECTS.

THE notion commonly prevalent, that formerly no more than two classes of people were known in Russia, the nobles and their vassals, is ill-founded. There has always been a sort of middle class, and in process of time this was split as it were into several others. From the remotest periods there have always been cities; for example, Novgorod and Pscove, which for a long series of time were even considered as republics: then Kief, Vladimir, together with others; and afterwards Mosco. Besides, when the peasantry first fell into vassalage, there were classes that belonged neither to them nor to the nobility; for, not to

mention the clergy, who have ever enjoyed a great conſideration, there were the writers, the odnodvortzi *, the kozaks, and ſeveral others.

In moſt of the ſtates of Europe the ſubjects are uſually divided into three claſſes. The ſame number is mentioned in Ruſſia by the late empreſs in her inſtructions to the commiſſion for making a code of laws; and this with the greateſt propriety; as ſhe had legiſlation chiefly

* The word odnodvortzi is compounded of *odno*, one, and *dvor*, a houſe, and therefore ſignifies owners of one habitation only; they are a certain ſet of ruſſian peaſants who were originally nobles, but being reduced to poverty by various circumſtances, were obliged to till themſelves what little ground they had remaining, for a maintenance. In proceſs of time, people of different denominations, ſuch chiefly as filled inferior offices under government, came and ſettled among them; and in the reign of tzar Peter the great, when every nobleman was obliged to enliſt himſelf in the military, ſeveral of them, even thoſe of conſiderable property, choſe this condition of life, preferring rather to pay taxes to government along with theſe peaſants, than go into the ſervice. Theſe peaſants have their own landed property, which they can diſpoſe of only to thoſe of their own condition. They pay all taxes impoſed by government; have free liberty to traffic; to exerciſe any trade, art, or handicraft; and to employ themſelves in every purſuit agreeable to their own diſpoſitions and the laws of the country: but they cannot change their condition, nor remove from one diſtrict and ſettle in another, without having firſt obtained permiſſion from the government.

in view, and expreſsly included the collateral ranks. She ſpeaks therefore only of the nobility; of the middle claſs, in which the clergy is reckoned; and of the lower claſs. We may then without ſcruple adhere to this diviſion; for, by adopting any other we ſhall either run into fanciful conjectures, or be obliged to make arbitrary diſtinctions without ſignification, and almoſt without end.

One author divides the ruſſian ſubjects into five ſeveral ranks or claſſes *; and for ſuch a diviſion arguments may be brought: only he ſhould not have ſet the free peaſants in the ſame claſs with the vaſſal-boors, it being well known that they are very different in regard to their rights. Neither is it apparent why he aſſigns a particular claſs to the foreign ſettlers, ſince they belong either as burghers and manufacturers to the middle, or as huſbandmen to the lower claſs. I am therefore obliged to depart a little from the diviſion which he has adopted as well as from that of ſeveral others.

Not to loſe our time then in idle diviſions by tribes, it will I think be better to keep principally

* Purgold's diſſertation de diverſis imperii Roſſici ordinibus eorumque juribus, &c. Halæ 1786. — Mr. Coxe enumerates only four claſſes; and this diviſion too may in ſome reſpects be defended.

in view thoſe three leading claſſes before-mentioned, which ſeem to admit of a farther diviſion in regard to rights and conſtitutions, whether founded on laws and privileges or on antient cuſtom and preſcriptive uſage. Accordingly we may divide the ſubject into the following five general claſſes *, by which however it will not be nearly exhauſted.

SECTION I.

Nobility.

In Ruſſia at preſent there is properly but one kind of nobility. It is the practice in ſome other countries, as it was formerly in this, to make a diſtinction between the higher and lower orders of nobility, but this diſtinction is now entirely unknown †; though concerning the peculiar

* Whoever chooſes may admit more, by reducing, for inſtance, the khans of the uncivilized nations, the german coloniſts, &c. into diſtinct claſſes, and then we ſhall have upwards of twenty of them.

† Mr. Coxe mentions the higher and lower nobility, but from what authorities it does not appear.

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characteriſtics of each of theſe two diviſions authors are not agreed *. It would likewiſe be very difficult to aſcertain preciſely what privileges were arrogated by the higher nobility of Ruſſia

* As the inquiry concerning what perſons or families compoſed the high nobility does not properly fall in with the ſubject now in hand, I ſhall only ſay a few words on it. Some appear to make it conſiſt of princes ſprung from the reigning grand-ducal houſes. Others ſpeak principally of the antient boyars: but thence immediately ariſes the queſtion, what they were, whence deſcended, and how they maintained their dignity, and then, whether this dignity was conferred by the ſovereign, whether it attached to birth, or whether it grew out of the conſequence they brought into the country with them. If we conſider them as the privy counſellors of the ſovereign, then their precedence ariſes merely from their office, or they muſt have already been ſo by birth. But it has been likewiſe affirmed, that the boyars, and in general the moſt conſiderable of the old ruſſian nobility, came from abroad, were ſprung from foreign anceſtors, and brought their nobility into the empire with them. This is a matter that muſt be left to the curious reſearches of hiſtorians and antiquaries. — But even among what are called the inferior nobility, a diſtinction appeared ſo early as that period: for noblemen that were elevated to that honour by the tzar had precedence over thoſe whom the patriarch, or an archbiſhop, or a boyar had raiſed to a ſort of nobleſſe. Perhaps there was a difference among the boyars; at leaſt many of them were merely elected to that honour.

in preference to the lower *. If we find them in poſſeſſion of no hereditary inherent and eſſential prerogatives, of none but what they acquired from the office of boyars, or that they conſiſted merely in pretenſions; in that caſe the antient diſtinction between the higher and lower nobility will appear to be very inſignificant or altogether doubtful.

* M. Purgold is of opinion that the Ruſſians had originally a high and inferior nobility, with the ſame rights as in the reſt of Europe. This I ſhall not venture to affirm. It is true, the boyars made free-men, by diſtributing portions of land among their vaſſals, and thus raiſed them to a ſort of nobleſſe: but I know not whether this was done by right, or by an arrogated claim, with the tacit approbation of the ſovereign. — On one hand the old families carried their pretended rights much farther than the high nobility in Germany, eſpecially in regard to the military ſervice; as a nobleman, whoſe forefathers had acquired high degrees of honour, would not ſerve under ſuch as had not ſo long a pedigree to ſhew: whereas the german princes, of antient princely families, fought without ſcruple under a general of the inferior, or even of quite new nobility. On account of the great confuſions this occaſioned in the ſervice, the tzar Feodor Alexéyevitch cauſed the ſteppenniye knigi, (the books of pedigrees,) whence the nobility drew their ſingular pretenſions, to be deſtroyed. — On the other hand, the ruſſian high nobility had fewer prerogatives than the german, eſpecially in regard to territorial juriſdiction and authority.

The

The ruſſian nobility, eſpecially in Great Ruſſia, have always enjoyed certain peculiar rights and privileges; but they were for the moſt part only derived from long uſage, not ſanctioned by any written law or even compact *. Theſe privileges are: 1. that they can excluſively poſſeſs landed eſtates; of which we ſhall ſpeak more particularly hereafter. 2. They can not only alienate or ſell their eſtates, but they can uſe them at pleaſure wherever the monopolies of the crown form no limitations. Thus, a nobleman can ſet up a diſtillery; but only for his own uſes, or for ſale to the crown, and not for the public houſes †. 3. If a nobleman be found guilty of any high crime, he may be ſentenced to the forfeiture of his eſtate, his life, and his

* I ſay for the moſt part, becauſe ſuch a privilege has really a written law in its favour in the Uloſhenie.

† In this matter ſome provinces have greater privileges than others, being allowed to diſtil not only for private uſe, but alſo for the public houſes, without being ſubject to any tax upon it. Of this ſort are the Don kozaks, the landowners in Little Ruſſia, the proprietors of eſtates in Livonia and Eſthonia, &c. — On the other hand the ruſſian nobility, and generally in other provinces every proprietor of land, has the high and low chace on his own grounds, as well as the right to ſet up mills at pleaſure, without paying any tribute for it.

honour, conſequently his nobility; but he can never be made a vaſſal. 4. They can arbitrarily impoſe taxes and ſervices on their vaſſals, and may inflict on them corporal puniſhment, ſhort of putting them to death; a written law in the Uloſhenie (the old law of the land) protects them in this matter *, whereby the vaſſal is forbidden under penalty to bear witneſs or bring any complaint againſt his lord. 5. The nobleman is properly not reſponſible for his vaſſals; when the crown has any requiſition to

* It might almoſt be affirmed, that in this the nobility have a greater authority than the crown ever exerciſed over any one of its ſubjects. With what lenity does it proceed in pardoning and puniſhing! with what accuracy and caution is the caſe inveſtigated! — which it muſt be confeſſed but ſeldom happens in the ordinary domeſtic correction, where paſſion frequently interferes. Even on the occaſional introduction of new impoſts, the crown has always ſhewn great indulgence; and when, for example, a greater obrok is impoſed on its own people, it is declared to be done only in order to leſſen the jealouſy between the boors belonging to the crown and thoſe of the nobility. However, the ruſſian nobles are not apt to abuſe the authority they have over the boors, but, for ſeveral reaſons, moſtly behave with humanity towards them. Lords that exceed all bounds in ſeverity of treatment have, in order to reſcue the boors, been declared impotent of mind, which made it neceſſary to put them under guardianſhip.

make,

make, the officer applies to the village *, if the former do not of his own accord take upon him the delivery. 6. His vaſſals, indeed, bear the ordinary public burdens †, namely, the ſoul-tax, or capitation ‡, the ſupply of recruits §, and the furniſhing of quarters ‖; to which may be added, on urgent occaſions, the providing of horſes, though commonly for pay; but to new and un-

* In Livonia and Eſthonia, on the contrary, the nobleman muſt anſwer and pay for his boors; otherwiſe, not his village, but he incurs an execution. Conſequently they there know nothing of crown-reſtantzies, ſo common in Ruſſia, where they are ſometimes remitted by an act of grace.

† Even the crown-boors are liable to them in Great Ruſſia.

‡ Ever ſince its firſt introduction it has remained the ſame, without increaſe or alteration. Thus, the crown cannot require the noble-boors to work it out at the mines, though it can compel its own boors to do ſo, as every nobleman may his, whenever he thinks fit.

§ The boors muſt, indeed, give up their ſons as recruits, or find ſubſtitutes for money; but the recruiting likewiſe affects the property of the nobleman, who loſes ſome of his vaſſals by it.

‖ The boor muſt take thoſe quartered upon him into his cottage, which likewiſe the officer muſt put up with. But of late many of the crown-villages have begun to erect particular quarters for the officers, and ſpacious ſtables for the cavalry, at their own expence, that they may live the more quietly in their humble habitations.

uſual

uſual public ſervices or exactions from the crown without pay; ſuch as making or repairing roads and forts, or guarding and conducting priſoners, &c. * they are not obliged †, except, if I am not miſtaken, by a law of Peter the great, on preſſing emergencies. 7. A nobleman cannot be compelled (at leaſt it has never happened) to build a barrack or a magazine for the crown, or to raiſe recruits againſt his will ‡. 8. His perſon and his landed property

* For ſuch matters the crown hires the neceſſary people. It has at times procured voluntary boors for a ſhort time, and ſet them as guards over priſoners, with ſuch arms as are uſed by the kozaks. Some provinces, for example Livonia and Eſthonia, form an exception; for there the noble-boor muſt take care of the repairs of the highways gratis, put up poſts and rails where neceſſary, and ſometimes conduct priſoners, &c.

† Whether, however, they may not be compelled to it, I cannot venture to decide.

‡ When the crown wants any thing, voluntary contracts are made for it; and the neceſſary ſtore-houſes muſt be built at its expence. — It is, however, quite otherwiſe in ſome parts of Livonia and Eſthonia; for there the nobleman muſt build and maintain particular quarter-houſes or barracks, or find a proper lodging in his own yard for the officers ſent him: he muſt alſo provide magazines, keep receivers and deliverers there, and be anſwerable for all damages; muſt ſupply the poſt-ſtations with buildings and forage; muſt give up certain products at a very moderate price whenever

perty are exempt from taxation *. — The privileges of the nobility have of late, by a manifeſto of the year 1785, been confirmed and enlarged. They can now have their own marſhals; hold aſſemblies, which cannot be moleſted by any arreſt; they may ſet up manufactories and open mines on their own ground, without paying any tribute to the crown for them.

The nobility, likewiſe, were always bound to certain duties. One of the moſt important was to ſerve the government with inviolable fidelity, which is implied in the very origin of nobility. In Ruſſia this had, for a long time, the appearance of coercion. At firſt, as in the old germanic feudal ſyſtem, every nobleman was obliged to appear in the field with his ſubjects at his own expence. This cuſtom ceaſed on the eſtabliſhment of a ſtanding army, and to the ſupport of which the capitation-tax was impoſed on the

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whenever the crown requires it, &c. On the other hand, both theſe dukedoms are exempt from the levy of recruits.

* He can uſe his lands, foreſts, &c. as he pleaſes, for which he pays no public impoſt. Only when he ſells his eſtate, to which alſo the vaſſals are reckoned, either he or the purchaſer muſt pay a certain percentage upon it. This, as well as the beforementioned levy of recruits, may be conſidered as a ſort of taxation.

boor: nevertheleſs, the nobleman is bound, as heretofore, to ſerve the empire in his own perſon; nor can he, without expreſs permiſſion, enter into any foreign ſervice. But the emperor Peter I. was deſirous that his nobility ſhould travel, improve their manners, and accept of foreign ſervice *. Peter III. declared, in a manifeſto of the 18th of February 1762, that they were at liberty to enter into the ſervice of any country they choſe, or to live on their eſtates without ſerving at all †. The late empreſs wiſhed to encourage thoſe few who prefer honour to their private convenience, to manifeſt their proper object by entering into military or civil employment. — From her they have now re-

* At leaſt he recommended it to them in very expreſs terms, on occaſion of the ſplendid and elegant appearance of count Beſtuchef-Riumin, afterwards chancellor, at the court of St. Peterſburg as a foreign ambaſſador.

† It has been imagined by ſome that the nobles were not free till then; and that they were before no better than a parcel of ſlaves or vaſſals. — Indeed even the greateſt boyar, in his letters and ſtatements to the monarch, always ſubſcribed himſelf his ſlave; but this was the ſtyle of the times, and ſignified nothing more than what "your moſt "devoted humble ſervant" does at preſent. — As ſubjects in other countries are bound to the ſervice of their country; and, even in our own, on the iſſuing of a proclamation, every man muſt hurry home, ſo it was with the ruſſian nobility, though ſomewhat more general and compulſory.

ceived

ceived a written prerogative in the abovementioned manifeſto of 1785. In virtue of which the nobles of every government are inrolled in the book of nobility in ſix claſſes or diviſions; nevertheleſs, all the ſix form but one ſingle corps: ſo that the liſt belonging to each government is a ſupplement to the genealogical book of the collective nobility of the whole empire; wherein no regard is paid to birth, origin, rank, religion, or language.

The ſix claſſes or diviſions are according to the order preſcribed in the manifeſto: 1. The real nobility, who can ſhew their diploma, arms, and ſeal, or ſufficient teſtimony that they have been of the real nobility one hundred years. 2. The military nobility, conſiſting of officers of birth not noble, but by their military ſervice, in conformity to the ukaſe of Peter I. bearing date Jan. 16, 1721, are ennobled, with their children and poſterity *. They have no need of a diploma: their commiſſion as officers ſupplies its place. 3. The eight-claſs nobility, or perſons belonging to the firſt eight degrees of rank †: they

* The name of ſuch as have only perſonal nobility does not appear in the book of pedigrees.

† From the ſtaff-officer upwards; alſo ſuch as have the ſame rank in the court and civil ſervice, e. g. court-counſellors,

they are eſteemed equal to the moſt antient nobility. 4. Foreigners, deſcending from families of foreign countries. 5. The families honoured with titles, princes, counts, and barons. 6. The antient noble races who can prove the antiquity of their nobility, although their noble origin be covered with obſcurity.

In regard to the military and eight-claſs nobility, it ſhould farther be obſerved, that there are mercantile people who have received the characters of ſtaff and ſuperior officers. In relation to them a ukaſe was iſſued by her majeſty, dated the 13th of Feb. 1790, that thoſe who, according to the ukaſe of Nov. 18, 1766, have ſuch characters might be contractors and farmers to the crown, but were not permitted to purchaſe eſtates, nor be united with the nobility who are inrolled in the tables of rank. But merchants, who have received their character according to the regulation provided for the military and civil ſervices, may not undertake any contracts or farmings, but are admitted to all the rights and privileges which are

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ſellors, counſellors of ſtate, have the brigadier's rank; actual counſellors of ſtate have the rank of major-general, and are addreſſed by the ſtyle of excellence.

granted

granted to deſerving perſons by the ukaſe of Peter I. and by that of her preſent majeſty of April 21, 1785.

Formerly the ruſſian nobility conſiſted only of princes *, and the ordinary nobleſſe; and the ſovereign granted no other than theſe two dignities: but ſince the commencement of the preſent century counts and barons have been added, who have received their dignities either from the ruſſian monarch or the emperor of Germany. — The nobility of the empire is very numerous †, and is increaſing daily not only by deſcent, but alſo by ſervice, rank, title, alien pedigree, and foreign diploma ‡.

* Knæſes.

† Eſpecially about Moſco: the more wealthy reſide in that city; and a certain pride is very obſervable in them there, which however does not diſplay itſelf much in their intercourſe with others, but ariſes merely from a conſciouſneſs of their own importance, and is only diſcernible in their carriage and deportment.

‡ In Livonia merchants and others ſometimes endeavour to get a patent of nobility from abroad (as in Peterſburg it can only be obtained by ſervice) to qualify themſelves for purchaſing an eſtate, or to exempt them from perſonal taxes, or that their children who are in the army or navy may be the ſooner advanced. By this means a great deal of money goes out of the country.

The

The nobility conſiſts at preſent of ſeveral claſſes or orders, ſuch as: 1. PRINCES, whoſe number is extremely large. Some are ſprung from the blood of reigning princes, as the families of Dolgoruki, Vazemſkoi, Cherkaſkoi, Chilkof, &c. Others deſcend from Poles, as Golitzin; and others have been raiſed to the princely rank. Several are of tartarian pedigree. Many have been created princes in order to gain them over, as being the principal perſons in a place beſieged; even myrzas have received this dignity on allowing themſelves to be baptized. — Without military rank obtained by ſervice, they bear indeed the title of princes, but they have no pre-eminence attached to their birth, nor any precedence over the other nobility that are in the ſervice. Only their ſons that have merit are preferred before others. The daughter of a prince, without injury to her honour, marries a ſimple nobleman. No ruſſian prince poſſeſſes or derives his name or title from a principality; though many of them are owners of eſtates far more extenſive than the territory of ſome ſovereign princes in Germany.

The princes of the german empire, as well by inheritance as creation, form a particular and pre-eminent claſs of princes: they receive the title

title of Highneſs, and their children are ſtyled princes and princeſſes *.

Among the princes we may not improperly reckon the khans, &c. who govern the tribes of the ſteppes, under the ruſſian ſovereignty, though they are not ſtyled princes. So alſo the ataman of the kozaks of the Don, for the time being, may well be admitted under this head.

2. COUNTS are much fewer in number than princes, to whom they are properly not inferior in dignity, rank, and authority. They have their title either from the ruſſian ſovereign or from the german court, and would not willingly exchange it for that of prince. They poſſeſs no territorial county, and the german title, Graf, is adopted into the ruſſian language.

3. BARONS, or freyherrn, free-lords; the liber homo, perhaps, of the antient charters and ſtatutes of England. Ruſſia has but few barons; for a long time the family of Stroganof was the only one of that empire that was honoured with this title. The late empreſs raiſed ſeveral perſons to it; among whom we have ſeen three of our own countrymen, baron Dimſdale

* The children of common ruſſian princes, or even of khans, do not receive this title: the former are called princes and princeſſes.

with his ſon baron Nathanael Dimſdale, and baron Sutherland late banker to her majeſty.

4. SIMPLE NOBLEMEN, whoſe number is exceedingly great. Among them are very rich families, poſſeſſing eſtates in land of greater ſurface than many a dukedom; but alſo numbers that are poor, who have neither a peaſant nor a foot of land belonging to them. A general officer, ſtill alive, being on a journey in Siberia, came to a village which was almoſt entirely inhabited by noblemen; who, having no boors, carried on their huſbandry with their own hand-labour, as is the common practice with ſome of the petty nobleſſe of Poland.

5. DIETI-BOYARSKIE, or boyars'-children, and the patriarchal, as alſo the epiſcopal nobles; of whom ſome poſſeſs real nobility, while others are enregiſtered in the capitation. The antient reſpectable boyars, who poſſeſſed an extenſive property in land, erected a ſort of dominion around them, in conformity with their feudal notions, and raiſed ſome of their vaſſals to diſtinction over the reſt, under the name of Dieti-boyarſkie, i. e. boyars'-children, who were to ſerve the ſtate. Their example was ſoon followed by the ſuperior clergy who had large poſſeſſions; eſpecially the patriarch, who took upon him, like the ſovereign, to elevate perſons under his

his protection to the rank of nobility, and to grant them eſtates. The tzars afterwards conferred real nobility on ſome of them who had ſhewn themſelves worthy of it by abilities and merit. — The governors of provinces likewiſe formerly appointed ſeveral kozaks that were ſtationed in towns to the dignity of boyar-children and nobleſſe; as a reward for their ſervices either in the military or civil department: yet they could not confer on them real nobility, nor have they ever been held in equal conſideration with that which follows it. — In the preſent century, when the capitation-tax and the delivery of recruits were introduced, ſuch of the boyar-children, and epiſcopal or patriarchal nobleſſe, as had vaſſals, were admitted into the number of real nobles; others remained ſubject to perſonal ſervices; or, if they had entered into guilds and corporation companies, they were regiſtered to the capitation. — Their rank and their right to poſſeſs eſtates are, however, held by ſome to be very problematical.

It being a maxim with the ruſſian ſovereigns not more expreſsly to favour the antient than the new nobility, and princes not more viſibly than the other nobles; inſomuch, that even, according to the regulation for equipages publiſhed a few years ago, the nobleman who has not

ſerved, muſt drive an inferior equipage in towns, that is, with only one horſe, than the merchant, who may be drawn in his coach with two or four horſes at his diſcretion: ſo that every one muſt ſtrive to raiſe himſelf by good behaviour and ſervices performed to the ſtate, if he will not ſink into oblivion, and live in his village without authority or conſequence. For birth here gives but little claim to preference and conſideration; both are regulated by the degree of rank acquired by ſervice. Birth merely facilitates the way to honour. Accordingly there is not one place of rank which the new noble or the man of not-noble birth may not fill. No queſtion is ever put concerning anceſtry; and the officer's wife, who may be the daughter of a burgher, appears upon an equal footing with the moſt antient princeſs at the imperial court, where they both receive the reſpect attached to the rank of their huſband.

Though it ſhould appear from the charter granted by her late majeſty in 1785, as well as from ſeveral antient laws, that the right of poſſeſſing landed eſtates is granted only to the nobility; yet it would be wrong to conclude thence, that the nobleman only and excluſively may poſſeſs property in land throughout the whole empire;

empire; or that by thoſe ukaſes the rights of other ranks and claſſes were aboliſhed. It is not to be denied, that on a ſlight view, thoſe ukaſes ſeem to appropriate ſolely to the nobility the right of being land-owners; nay, there is an ukaſe by which merchants, who, though of the character of ſtaff and upper officers, but have not the entire noble pre-eminence, were prohibited the purchaſe of eſtates: conſequently, in the preſent caſe, the nobility were not contraſted with the vaſſals or hereditary boors, but with the other ranks. But it is no leſs undeniable that not only private perſons and particular ranks *, but alſo whole tribes belonging in no reſpect to the nobility, poſſeſs a real landed property, eſtates, nay entire diſtricts and provinces: we ſee a proof of this in the odnodvortzi and the kozaks of Little Ruſſia, each of whom has his little heritable eſtate; ſo likewiſe the Don kozaks, who are real proprietors of the whole of their extenſive country, in which they have their lands and cow-yards; thus alſo the Tartars, Baſchkirs, and Vogules, who ſell or let out large tracts of land or foreſts of their own hereditary

* Monaſteries and churches have ſtill in Ruſſia many parcels of land belonging to them; but ſeveral livonian and eſthonian paſtorates are real eſtates provided with vaſſals.

poſſeſſions, to the proprietors of mines. Ruſſian merchants too, ſince the reign of Peter I. poſſeſs property in land and boors: and in Livonia and Eſthonia real landed eſtates have belonged from time immemorial to particular towns and bodies corporate; and the empreſs Catharine II. latterly made a free-gift of the eſtate of Vieratz in perpetuity to the incorporated burghers of the kreisſtadt Fellin. That even ſimple boors may buy a village with all the people belonging to it, will hereafter be ſhewn from ukaſes when we come to ſpeak of the peaſantry. On the whole then it appears, that in the expreſſion of the ukaſes above-mentioned, there is a manifeſt obſcurity which may eaſily lead into miſtakes *. In Livonia the laws reſtricting the poſſeſſion of land have given riſe to the practice of procuring patents of nobility from Vienna, or at leaſt titles that confer the rank of nobles, by perſons of unnoble birth when they wiſh to purchaſe eſtates.

The noble eſtates in Ruſſia were formerly of two entirely different ſpecies: the one termed land-eſtates, the other hereditary eſtates; for

* Thoſe laws ſeem to relate principally to Great Ruſſia; and there only to ſuch eſtates to which vaſſals belong, though with ſome limitation.

Peter I.

Peter I. in 1714 introduced a ſort of majority, or indiviſibility, ſo that the poſſeſſor of an eſtate could make it over to which of his children he pleaſed. This diverſity was the cauſe of many difficulties in hereditary ſucceſſion. By an ukaſe bearing date the 17th of March 1731, the empreſs Anna entirely repealed it; aboliſhed the land-eſtates, and declared all to be hereditary to which a complete right of property and free diſpoſal were attached. From that time theſe hereditary eſtates have been inherited and ſold as ſuch. Only in Livonia and Eſthonia there were ſtill fiefs, whoſe legitimacy was liable to ſome doubt, and on an examination being ordered it cauſed cruel apprehenſions to their owners. But the late empreſs quieted their fears, to the happineſs of theſe two dukedoms, by an ukaſe of May 3, 1783, whereby all fiefs are aboliſhed, and thoſe eſtates are converted into real hereditary property with freedom of alienation.

Of the ruſſian eſtates it is farther to be remarked: 1. That they are vulgarly called villages, the value or greatneſs of which is eſtimated by the ſouls, i. e. the male heads of peaſantry, as in general every proprietary reckons his riches according to ſouls. When a proprietary wants to borrow money of the lombard, they advance him 40 rubles for every ſoul comprehended in

the mortgage: the females are never taken into the account. 2. In heritages the eſtate is divided among all the children of both ſexes; hence it is that at times a village belongs to ſeveral lords, each of whom poſſeſſes a certain number of ſouls upon it, and if he will he may go and live upon it, conduct his own huſbandry, or leave the care of it to his boors; becauſe all the ground and ſoil are his property. On failure of a direct heir, ſometimes a family privilege comes in force; if, for inſtance, the mother die, ſhe leaves the eſtate brought by her to her children; but, on their dying without heirs, it falls not to the father, but back to the maternal family.

Concerning the antient boyars, and their proper origin, nothing ſatisfactory has hitherto been publiſhed. During the tartarian and mongolian ſovereignty no trace of them is found *; even

* In a german compilation the boyars are mentioned under the mongolian ſupremacy, and even earlier: but, as the author does not quote the authorities whence he has his accounts, nothing can be decided from what he advances in favour of the antiquity of the boyars. It is likely he may have confounded expreſſions: for boyar often indicates the nobility in general; and we ſometimes hear the nobility in Moldavia and Valakhia called by the title of boyars. Even in the ruſſian language boyarin ſignifies a gentleman, a perſon of diſtinction, a maſter of a family; and

even during the reign of tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch I. no ſuch title appears, though it ſeems to have ariſen at that time or ſhortly after. For, under the tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch II. the boyars had already endeavoured to collect a conſiderable force about them; but were much over-awed by that monarch. In the ſucceeding period, however, when the patriarch, and, under his protection, the ſuperior clergy, raiſed great pretenſions, which, in the confuſions that ſoon after ſprang up, and from the indulgence or ſlothfulneſs of ſome tzars, were brought to effect, the boyars took advantage of this favourable opportunity to extend their power alſo. It is probable likewiſe that perſons of reſpectable birth, from other countries *, who filled high ſtations in Ruſſia;

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and the ruſſian peaſant uſually ſtyles his nobleman, even though he has neither rank nor eſtate, boyarin, or contractedly barin; and his ſpouſe, boyarina. The taſk-ſervice which the boors perform to their lord is therefore called, boyarſchtſchina.

* That there are foreign families among the ruſſian nobility is too well known to need any proof. The family of Beſtuchef is of engliſh origin; the name of the founder of it was Beſt, but as that word in the ruſſian ſignifies beaſt, and in order to give it a national termination, the two laſt ſyllables were added; to which they afterwards got the ſurname

Ruſſia; and on that account, no leſs than from the privileges they brought with them, enjoyed great authority, might give occaſion to all boyars, i. e. the ſuperior officers, to aſſume a conſequence which they ſtrove occaſionally to enlarge.

In regard to titles derived from rank, the Ruſſians in their addreſſes and letters employ either the rank-title, as, Major, with goſpodin, or Mr. prefixed, as the French ſay, Monſieur le Majeur; or only the baptiſmal name with the addition of the father's baptiſmal name, and the termination vitch, as, Ivan Petrovitch, John the ſon of Peter; of the family-appellative, except in particular caſes, no mention is made. In like manner the late empreſs, in her letters, addreſſed men of conſequence, either by their office; as, in french it would be (for it is not to be put into

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name Riumin, to denote their foreign deſcent. The firſt count Bruce was a Scotchman, no longer ago than the reign of Peter the Great, who engaged him in his ſervice. The family of Kar is alſo from North-Britain. That of Panin is originally Genoeſe. Korſakof came from Corſica, and therefore bears the ſurname Rimſki. The Fominſins are Thomſons, the name being tranſlated: Foma, Thomas; and ſyn, a ſon. A hundred more examples of a like nature might be given.

engliſh): Monſieur le general gouverneur de Riga et de Reval! or merely in their own and their father's baptiſmal name; the latter eſpecially when ſhe wrote to Ruſſians; in writs to inferior officers the addreſs is ſimply: To our college-aſſeſſor N. or the like. Below the imperial name is commonly a counterſignature of one of the cabinet-miniſters.— A Ruſſian, in the ordinary courſe of his correſpondence uſes only his chriſtian and family names, as Ivan Poſkatſhin; but, when he writes to the empreſs or preſents a petition, he alſo gives his father's baptiſmal name, though not with the termination *vitch*; but, as a mark of his ſubmiſſion and humility, with the termination *of*, adding the word *ſyn*, i. e. ſon, as, Ivan Petrof ſyn Poſkatſhin.

SECTION II.

The Clergy.

THOUGH the clergy are frequently comprehended in the middle order, yet without impropriety we may here aſſign them, as in ſeveral other kingdoms, a diſtinct claſs, being numerous and reſpectable, and having certain peculiar privileges of its own; beſides, as it is ſometimes particularly

cularly mentioned in manifeſtos *; and in ſeveral places is diſtinct from other claſſes †. The clergy are divided into ſuperior and inferior, into monaſtic and ſecular.

The clergy enjoy peculiar rights and privileges: they not only are held in greater reſpect, which extends alſo to the inferior clergy ‡, but they cannot ſuffer corporal puniſhment without being previouſly deſecrated; they are moreover exempt from taxes, even the ſecular prieſt pays no head-money for his ſons §; though when he has ſeveral he muſt deliver his proportion as recruits; who, however, as they can read and write, ſoon puſh themſelves forwards, and at length come

* Thus, for example, the empreſs Elizabeth, in her firſt manifeſto after coming to the crown, ſays, that all her faithful ſubjects of the ſpiritual and temporal orders had unanimouſly invited her to aſcend the throne of her fathers.

† In Livonia, where a liſt of ſouls muſt be delivered in every half-year, the clergy, according to orders iſſued for that purpoſe, take the ſecond place, as a particular body; they are always inſerted between the nobles and the burghers.

‡ Among the vulgar it extends even to thoſe whoſe behaviour and office do not exactly tally.

§ Even the ſexton does not pay it; only with the boors belonging to churches and monaſteries, it is the ſame as with noble-villages.

to

to be officers *, if they deſerve it by their conduct.

The 31 eparchies are the following:

1. Novgorod and St. Peterſburg.
2. Pſcove and Riga.
3. Tver and Kaſhin †.
4. Moſco and Kaluga ‡.
5. Kief and Galitz.
6. Mohilef, Mſtiſlavl, and Orſhanſk.
7. Smolenſk and Dorogobuſh.
8. Kazan and Sviyaſhſk.
9. Aſtrakhan and Stavropol.
10. Tobolſk and Siberia.
11. Roſtof and Yaroſlaf.
12. Riazan and Shatzk.
13. Ekatarinoſlaf and Kherſon-Taurida.
14. Tſchernigof and Neſhin.
15. Novgorodſeverſki and Glukhof.
16. Niſhgorod and Alator.
17. Bielgorod and Kurſk.

* For the ſame reaſon the preachers in Livonia and Eſthonia (who by their privileges may poſſeſs noble eſtates) frequently put their ſons into the land or ſea ſervice, though they are not ſubject to the recruit-levies.

† Theſe three firſt mentioned prelates are now members of the holy directing ſynod at St. Peterſburg.

‡ This prelate is member of the ſynod, though only for the department of Moſco.

18. Suſ-

18. Sufdal and Vladimir.
19. Kolomna and Tula.
20. Vologda and Uftiug.
21. Viatka and Great Permia.
22. Archangel and Olonetz.
23. Voronetfh.
24. Irkutfk and Nertfhinfk.
25. Koftroma and Galitch.
26. Tanbof and Penfa.
27. Orel and Siefsk.

The following eparchies have vicars:

28. Starayaruffa. The prelate is vicar in the novgorodian eparchy.
29. Dmitrof. The prelate is vicar in the mofcovite eparchy.
30. Pereyaflavl and Borifpolfk. The prelate is coadjutor of Kief.
31. Feodofia and Mariyepolfk. The prelate is vicar in the ekatarinoflaf eparchy.

Krutitzki is not named among the reft, becaufe its bifhop is exempted from the adminiftration of the eparchy, and refides in a monaftery as archimandrit.

In the empire are ufually reckoned 18,350 parifh-churches and cathedrals of the orthodox greek religion. In the year 1755, they were numbered

numbered at only 18,070. But to these must be added: 1. a multitude of conventual and other small churches which have no peculiar priest, but are considered as filiales or chapels: their number extends into thousands: 2. the numerous churches of other confessions, either in the provinces on the borders of the Baltic, or in White Russia, or lastly such as stand alone in russian towns.

The number of the russian clergy is computed at 67,900 persons, without including their families; to which should be added those of other confessions and religions. Some authors assert, that in the whole empire are 480 monasteries and 74 nunneries, among which the smaller are not reckoned; the former containing 7300 monks, and the latter 5300 nuns. The last number is manifestly exaggerated *. In the ecclesiastical establishment of Great Russia are reckoned only 159 monasteries and 67 nunneries; in the former 53 abbots, 99 priors, with 2657 persons belonging to them, chiefly consisting of monks: and in the latter 67 prioresses, and 1299 nuns. But herein are not comprised: 1. all the little religious houses dependent on them, which

* At least it bears no proportion to the convents. Mr. Coxe rightly states the nuns at only 1300.

the

the members may either maintain at their own expence or ſuffer to fall into decay: 2. thoſe monaſteries which declare that they require no pay but chuſe to ſupport themſelves by voluntary donations, &c.: 3. all the monaſteries in Little Ruſſia, as well as, 4. thoſe in White Ruſſia. However, on reckoning all theſe together, we ſhould hardly produce the above number of cloiſters, monks, and nuns. That Peter I. and ſtill more expreſsly Catharine II. have greatly circumſcribed the lazy monaſtic ſtate, ſo detrimental to population, and put it upon quite a different footing, is already univerſally known from other writers.

Some authors have erroneouſly ſuppoſed that the clergy conſiſts entirely of the ſons of prieſts; and that no man of noble birth has ever been admitted into orders. But, though the ſecular prieſts fill moſt of the ſpiritual offices with their children, yet individuals of other ſtations, particularly noblemen, have at all times taken the monaſtic habit, and then been made prieſts. It is but a few years ago that a nobleman, who had been in the military ſervice, was a ſpiritual director in a monaſtery; and a prelate now alive is, according to report, deſcended from a very honourable ruſſian family; and before he entered the church, had received an order of knighthood

hood for his ſervices in the army *. At preſent, however, few nobles feel any violent inclination to become clergymen †, whatever they may have formerly done.

By the laws of Ruſſia no eccleſiaſtic can be brought before a temporal judge, unleſs commiſſaries of the clerical order be likewiſe on the bench ‡. But, as in examinations that admit of no delay, and muſt be done upon the ſpot, it would be too tedious if the magiſtrate, for inſtance, the commander of the diſtrict, were obliged previouſly to ſend to aſk commiſſaries of the biſhop: therefore, the ſenate, in the year

* However, it is ſaid, that in general it is not much approved of that the clergy ſhould be of noble parentage.

† It is reported that a very reſpectable prelate, by his remonſtrances, brought it about that ſeveral diſbanded officers (among the reſt a huſſar, by birth a German, but had conformed to the ruſſian church) were admitted ſome years ſince into the cloiſter, and promoted to ſpiritual dignities. Yet theſe are not uſually appointed to village churches, as there the worthieſt clergymen run great hazard of becoming booriſh themſelves, from the total want of any ſocial intercourſe that might ſupply food to their minds, and keep up a dignity of manners: they are commonly obliged to work in the field, the barn, and the ſtable with their own hands.

‡ The preachers in Livonia and Eſthonia have no ſuch privilege as this to boaſt of: they are obliged to appear by ſummons before every temporal magiſtrate.

1791, repreſented to the ſynod, that it were to be wiſhed that the parochial biſhops in every town and diſtrict ſhould appoint ſtated ſpiritual deputies to be preſent at examinations where perſons of the ſacred order might be involved: which the ſynod approved and put into execution. Theſe ſtated deputies muſt immediately preſent themſelves whenever they are ſummoned to examinations by the town-bailiff or the commandant of the diſtrict.

Concerning the monaſteries it may be obſerved that they all follow the rule of St. Baſil; conſequently but one order of monks is known in Ruſſia. Neither in monaſteries nor in cathedrals have there ever been prebendaries, canons, minor canons, nor any officers of that kind under other names; accordingly there is no chapter to vote in the election of biſhops. Each monaſtery has no more than one ſuperintendant (whether prelate, or abbot, or prior); all the other perſons of the houſe are monks, either eccleſiaſtics or lay-brethren. There never has been an inſtance of a child being placed in a cloiſter for the ſake of making the brothers and ſiſters the richer, or of leſſening the burdens of a numerous family. Women ſeparated or divorced from their huſbands are put into nunneries, but ſeldom or never againſt their conſent.

SECTION III.

Burghers and the Settlers in Towns.

THIS diſtinction is neceſſary, becauſe there are many burghers who do not dwell in towns; for inſtance, german manufacturers; in Livonia the diſponents, placemen, profeſſioniſts, &c. that live about the country. On the other hand, there are people in the towns that are properly not burghers, ſuch as noblemen, officers of the crown, literati *; in like manner perſons that remain there only for a time, alſo ſervants, and real boors.

In Ruſſia have always been towns and burghers, as at Novgorod, Kief, Moſco, &c. therefore what Buſching ſays on this ſubject in his Geography needs ſome correction: that "the "burghers in Ruſſia are new, and are grown "out of the boors." The latter is only true of ſome towns, particularly of ſuch as were villages, and have been lately raiſed to corporations. If he mean to advert to the firſt origin of burghers, then the caſe is the ſame in Ruſſia

* According to the new regulation, however, the men of letters belong to the burghers.

as in all other kingdoms, and especially in his own country, Germany; where the burghers, as we learn from history, likewise arose from boors, from unfree peasants, or vassals; which latter cannot be said of the burghers in old russian towns, as they formed themselves into burgherships, while the nation yet knew nothing of unfree persons or vassals. In the provinces of the Baltic, the towns whereof are also a part of Russia, I shall at present say nothing.

Therefore, though Russia antiently had towns, yet it must be owned that they were but few, and the rights of the burghers were undefined. Even the formerly republican towns, Novgorod and Pscove, had lost their rights, which probably were partly but presumptive; only the baltic towns preserved their own constitutions, rights, and privileges.

The late empress by her mandate of 1785 gave a municipal regulation to all her dominions without exception, which is justly considered as a benefit of uncommon magnitude to the russian towns. Under the foregoing reigns the important object of augmenting the towns, the number of burghers and trade seems at times to have been wholly unthought of. It was impossible for commerce to thrive, while it was chiefly carried

carried on by vaſſals, and when the towns were too few in number. The countryman found no convenient ſale for his products, and theſe were conſequently not improved. At preſent, to the great advantage of the empire, all theſe matters are ſurpriſingly altered.

SECTION IV.

Free Peaſants.

THIS head, as it is not uſual in claſſifying the ruſſian ſubjects, requires ſome elucidation. Whole multitudes of people, who, in other countries, would, without heſitation, be aſſociated with the boors, demand in treating of the ruſſian empire, a particular claſs; becauſe, by reaſon of their country life, in the ſtricteſt ſenſe, they do not belong to the burghers, while on account of their freedom they are far above the condition of a boor, as a vaſſal *. Betwixt the two they form a middle ſtation. In virtue of their freedom, no man can alienate or

* Therefore in this place they are not called boors, becauſe vaſſalage is uſually connected with that idea: however they are often comprehended among the boors even in ſtate-papers and in numbering the people.

ſell them; they educate their children as they pleaſe; the generality of them poſſeſs an immovable property; what they earn no man can take from them, ſo they do but duly pay their common taxes, or perform their ſtated taſks of public labour: they are under no arbitrary command, but, like thoſe of ſuperior ranks, own no authority but that of the general laws of the ſtate. To all who know the value of freedom it will appear then but reaſonable to allot them here a ſeparate claſs *. Yet among them there are different gradations, as all of them do not enjoy the ſame degree of liberty. Some of them are expreſsly called boors, and, without violation of their freedom, are treated as ſuch, though with ſomewhat more gentleneſs than vaſſals. Others have a true civil liberty, and differ only by their place of abode and occupations from towns-people. None of them enjoy ariſtocratical privileges; the particular perſons who have ſoared above their ſtation, and have attained to nobility, dignities, and orders by military ſervice, form no general rule, eſpecially as many that were born vaſſals have done the ſame.

To this claſs belong: 1. The FOREIGN COLONISTS, ſettled here as huſbandmen, or farmers.

* They are called countrymen in all the public documents.

By

By their occupation they are boors. But by reaſon of the land given to them, they cannot be ſo called; we muſt, therefore, mitigate the expreſſion by epithets, and term them free german boors *. The german workmen in the mines, and others of a like deſcription, may properly enough be joined with them; if on account of the ſmallneſs of their numbers we cannot aſſign them a particular ſub-diviſion. But the ruſſian maſter-workmen in the mines belong properly to the boors as being in a ſort of vaſſalage.

2. The ODNODVORTZI, or one-houſe-owners †, belong heritably to no private perſon, nor can they be heritably granted to any one ‡; conſe-

* They reaſonably hold the firſt place in the preſent claſs, from the privileges that have been granted them, by which they cannot be judged arbitrarily, but according to the laws, by the judges of the diſtrict; alſo here and there have their own conſtitution; and if they pay back the advance-money they have received, they may draw again.

† They have indeed no farm-yard as is cuſtomary in the livonian manors, and therefore might be called one-houſe-holders; yet this expreſſion is not only unuſual, but incomplete, becauſe they poſſeſs more than a houſe; they have lands likewiſe. Some foreigners claſs them with the free-ſettlers; but in a manifeſto of February 18, 1762, they are termed country-ſettlers.

‡ This privilege is probably not grounded on any written law, but only on immemorial uſage.

quently they are not vaſſals, not even of the crown *, though it regards them as ſubjects in the ſtricteſt ſenſe; and therefore at times they are ſent in multitudes to ſome ſeminary of the country-militia on the lines. They poſſeſs their houſes, with the grounds belonging to them, as real property, for which they neither perform feudal ſervice nor give of their products: ſo that they are far better off than the boors. But, as they are obliged to furniſh recruits, to pay the poll-tax and obrok, to be ſent wherever the good of the empire requires them, and can neither buy villages † nor poſſeſs vaſſals as property ‡, ſo they belong not, at leaſt now, to the nobility, though they are very apt to reckon themſelves of their claſs, and are ſometimes by others regarded as a ſort of inferior or petty no-

* That is, when compared with the crown-vaſſals who preſently come under the fifth ſection, and are properly diſtinct from them.

† Eſtates.

‡ Some of late have indeed bought eſtates with vaſſals; but it is always in the name of ſome nobleman who permits them to uſe it; otherwiſe, by the laws as they exiſt at preſent, they would have to fear a retractation as ſoon as their purchaſe became public. This already ſhews that they do not belong to the nobility, though they ſeem in a manner to be numbered with them in the manifeſto of Feb. 18, 1762.

bleſſe. That they originally formed a part of the ariſtocracy, and gradually ſunk below it, is hardly to be ſuppoſed. It is rather more probable, that when the country people fell into vaſſalage, they preſerved their freedom by ſuch means as they had, and particularly by their landed property *. Many of them have lately by military ſervice got by degrees to be officers, and conſequently, with their children, are become real noblemen; but then they belong no more to the odnodvortzi. There are among them perſons in good circumſtances. — In ſome places in their number are reckoned the diſbanded ſoldiers that live in the country: and hence might ariſe the notion, that the odnodvortzi derived their origin from the military ſervice †; and that their anceſtors, being common people, were favoured, on account of their good behaviour, with a poſſeſſion of inheritance in per-

* It is thought by ſome, that, on account of their freedom and their landed property, they belonged formerly to the nobility; but this is a miſtake, for there are people in the empire who poſſeſs hereditary lands, and yet are neither vaſſals nor noblemen.

† Not very different from this is the opinion advanced by M. Purgold, who derives their origin from the priſoners taken in war, which is rather improbable, though ſome of them may be ſprung from priſoners or ſtrangers.

petuity,

petuity, which protected them from vaſſalage. But the great number of them ſeems in ſome meaſure to weaken the probability of this ſuppoſition. Others again give them the ſame origin with the boyar-children, above deſcribed, with the declaration, that thoſe of them who had no boors of their own ſhould be odnodvortzi.

3. The Kozaks in all their ſtems and branches, who poſſeſs their diſtricts, lands, and cow-yards, as real property. Some, for inſtance, thoſe of the Don and the mountains of Ural, pay no poll-tax, but perform military ſervice; others, as thoſe of Little Ruſſia, now pay the poll-tax and deliver recruits out of the regiments raiſed from their own body, but are otherwiſe exempt from military ſervice; others again look after the poſts, furniſh them with horſes and ſhelter, for which, however, they receive a ſlight pay; ſeveral, as the ſiberian Kozaks, repreſent a ſort of petty nobility, as ſome well-informed German writers have particularly ſhewn. I ſhall only obſerve farther, that at preſent are ſeen among them perſons, who by military ſervice are not only become noble, but have alſo obtained conſiderable dignities and orders of knighthood. — The Kozaks too are regarded by the crown as ſubjects in the ſtricteſt meaning of the term; and therefore at times whole

whole maſſes of them are tranſplanted into other regions.

4. The TARTAR TRIBES. They pay the head-money and furniſh recruits; but poſſeſs their lands as heritable property.

5. The BASHKIRS, VOGULES, KALMUKS, with moſt of the nomadic tribes and people of the ſteppes. Many of them have their own political conſtitutions, and a ſort of nobility among them. Being not vaſſals, and poſſeſſing their lands in inheritance, they fall under this head. However, theſe, eſpecially the Baſhkirs, who perform military ſervice, and the Vogules, are reckoned by ſome writers among the boors of the crown; but this ſhould be done with a kind of limitation.

6. DISBANDED SOLDIERS living in the country. They are called in ukaſes and other public inſtruments, "people of the former diſbanded "military eſtabliſhment." — Formerly, as was obſerved before, the boyar, or nobleman, was bound to appear in the field with his people. When the war was over, he returned to his manſion, and his people were boors as before. At length ſtanding regiments were eſtabliſhed: the Streltzi were of this ſort. Peter the great created a complete army under this regulation, that, inſtead of the former perſonal ſervice, it ſhould

ſhould be recruited out of the empire; but whoever was incapable of ſerving any longer, ſhould be diſmiſſed, only with this condition, that he ſhould never again be a vaſſal; and therefore muſt diſtinguiſh himſelf by his dreſs, the ſhaving of his beard*, &c. his reaſon for which was probably that the military might always be held in reſpect. When ſuch diſcarded ſoldiers retired to the country and followed agriculture, they were indeed boors, but free, under the ſovereignty of the crown, ſomewhat like the odnodvortzi. This regulation was continued through the ſucceeding reigns. At that time all recruits went into the forts; where, as in a kind of garriſon, they learnt and enured themſelves to the military profeſſion. At the concluſion of the ſeven years' war, which had coſt the empire great numbers of men, an alteration took place, in order to ſpare the country for ſome time from

* Not longer than 28 years ſince at every diſmiſſal of an under-officer or common ſoldier, (even though he had not before been a vaſſal, but were a free-born German,) he was expreſsly ordered not to dreſs himſelf like a boor, but to wear german cloaths, to ſhave his beard, &c. — That this is at preſent the practice I ſcarcely believe. But only a few years ago it was done at the diſmiſſion of an under-officer of german noble parentage; probably through an overſight of the chancery.

the

the obligation to furnish recruits. Thenceforward the veteran soldiers and invalids came into the garrisons, where they married, and are now a nursery for the army; as the crown maintains their children and has them brought up as soldiers. Ever since, the recruits are delivered directly to the regiments. At present a soldier but seldom receives his dismission, and only in cases where he can bring vouchers that he is no longer fit for service, but has rich relations, or means of his own whereby to procure a sufficient maintenance. He from that moment belongs to the class of free country-men; and his former lord can never demand him back.

7. Emancipated Serfs, who have either bought their freedom of their lord, or obtained it gratuitously in reward for faithful service, &c. Of such are considerable numbers in Livonia and Esthonia. They either gain a livelihood in the country as petty placemen, millers, publicans, &c. or get admitted into the burghership of towns.

8. Malo-russian Boors, or Boors of Little Russia, who are neither Kozaks nor vassals, but free people *. They possess no immovable property, but rent lands of the nobles there, for money, or for certain work to be performed.

* Yet there are russian vassals among them.

By

By the capitation-tax, which they have been obliged to pay ſince 1783, they are now ſomewhat more ſhackled, becauſe they can no longer remove at will from one place to another; but muſt remain in that where they are regiſtered to the capitation, or muſt come to terms with the manorial lord for that purpoſe.

9. FREE PEASANTS, who can neither be ſold nor alienated ſeparately from the land, but belong to the eſtate *; with which they paſs from one lord to another. They may not improperly be reduced to two claſſes: ſome poſſeſſing their land in the manner of a freehold, of which ſort we find many in the government of Viborg; whereas others live upon the lands of the lord, and pay for the occupancy in money or in ſtated taſks of labour. The latter may quit their place (though not the diſtrict) on offering another boor, acceptable to the ſeignorial lord; who has a right to diſpoſe of them. Some have expreſs privileges peculiar to themſelves †. The education of their

* Somewhat like glebæ adſcripti. The lord can drive them away from his domain.

† Which they maintain with extreme jealouſy. — Some of theſe boors, though they are ſubject to the domeſtic correction of their landlord, yet they are not entirely under his arbitrary ſway, but are ſtill protected by the laws. Thoſe in the government of Viborg cannot be puniſhed otherwiſe than conformably to a legal ſentence.

children

children is left to themſelves, who either bring them up to mechanical trades, or get them into ſervice, &c. They dwell either on the crown-lands or on thoſe of the nobles, chiefly in Eſthonia and the adjacent iſlands, alſo in Livonia and on the iſle of Runo *.

SECTION V.

Vaſſal boors.

THEY are uſually called ſimply boors; but here this addition is neceſſary as a diſtinction between them and the preceding free boors. They have no civil liberty; their children belong not to them, but to their manorial lord, on whoſe will they depend; they alſo, with their children, ſingly or in families, may be alienated, ſold, and exchanged; they poſſeſs no immovable property, but they themſelves are treated, ſometimes as the movable, ſometimes as the immovable property of another. They properly therefore form a diſtinct claſs.

Originally they were free; but, in Great Ruſſia, after the turbulent times of the falſe

* In Eſthonia and Livonia they are called ſwediſh boors, being originally of that country, whence they derive their privileges.

Demetriuſes,

Demetriuſes, became gradually vaſſals, or heritable ſerfs: conſequently it was not by the impoſition of head-money, but long before; for already in the Uloſhenie appear ordinances concerning the ſlaves *, e. g. that, as was mentioned above, they ſhould neither bear witneſs nor bring a complaint againſt their lord †. — Buſching indeed calls the crown-boors as well as the nobility-boors, vaſſals; but when he afterwards adds, "vaſſalage has particularly remained "with the crown-boors," it ſeems rather unintelligible. As theſe, in general, live more comfortably than thoſe of the nobility, perhaps the geographer only meant to ſuggeſt, that, with

* This expreſſion muſt not here be taken in its ſtricteſt import. Some indeed look upon their vaſſals as ſlaves; but between the two there is a conſiderable difference; though perhaps an auſtere lord may ſometimes treat his vaſſal as a ſlave, at leaſt when under the influence of paſſion. Mr. Coxe is in a miſtake when he calls the condition of the ruſſian boors a perfect ſlavery. This term in no reſpect applies to the crown-boors. Even thoſe belonging to the nobles have certain rights; for inſtance, the lord cannot put them to death, cannot prevent them from marrying, cannot violate their wives and daughters, &c. Were he to do ſo; it would be wrong and contrary to law, and might be attended with legal cenſures.

† Hence it is obſervable, that the boyars had an influence in the making of the Uloſhenie, and did not forget their prerogatives over the boors.

the

the latter, vaſſalage had degenerated into ſlavery. But a very great part of them really live in good circumſtances, and are rich. Generally ſpeaking, there is no exceeding great difference between the two: for the crown can make preſents of its boors to private perſons, whenever and in what numbers it will; and then they are immediately treated upon the ſame footing with the other nobility boors. — Many of the former have long ſince become merchants *. Others of both ſorts are ſtill boors, but at the ſame time carry on ſome trade, either on their own account alone, or in company with merchants. Others again have got themſelves inſcribed in towns as traders, paying their taxes as ſuch, and at the ſame time as boors. The majority of them purſue huſbandry, take to the fiſheries, or follow ſome other profitable occupation.

They are commonly divided into three kinds; but it ſeems requiſite to part them into four.

1. CROWN-BOORS †. Theſe are extremely numerous. In the government of Perme they form the greater part of the peaſantry. But at the ſame time it muſt be obſerved, that there all the people belonging to the crown are reckoned

* An ukaſe gave occaſion to this.

† In Livonia they are vulgarly called public boors.

its vaſſals, and therefore called crown-boors; and thus, not only the Ruſſians, but alſo the Tartars, Baſhkirs, Permiaks, Siryanes, Vogouls, and many others, paſs under that denomination. But, though this be the caſe ſometimes even in the chanceries, yet it is but reaſonable to make a diſtinction between boors whom the crown, as its real vaſſals, can grant away, and who poſſeſs no real property; and thoſe tribes of people who are owners of immovable poſſeſſions, and enjoy certain rights and privileges. Therefore thoſe people ſeem to belong to the foregoing claſs. However, we muſt not omit to mention, that there are alſo real vaſſal-boors belonging to the crown, which the crown cannot with propriety give away, they being attached as workmen to the mines either of the crown or of private individuals, that they may earn wherewith to pay their head-money, and who could not be removed without conſiderable detriment to the mine-works. Such are called, Pripiſniye, i.e. inrolled; and they are many thouſands in number. That, formerly, on account of ſome oppreſſions they ſuffered from private proprietors of mines, they would ſometimes riſe tumultuouſly, but that the late empreſs, ſome years ago iſſued a very gracious ukaſe for their protection, has been already noticed

noticed under the article of mines. Since that time, whenever a maſter-miner or any of his ſubſtitutes, think fit to deal more harſhly with them than the letter of the law allows, they have a right to bring their complaint before the proper judge.

The taxes and impoſts of the crown-boors are not in all places alike. Moſt of them, beſides the head-money, pay alſo the obrok, i. e. a ſum of money for every male ſoul; and this is the only benefit the crown derives from them. In ſome diſtricts they do taſk-work *; or they pay of their products; or, as in Livonia, both at once, inſtead of the obrok. However, great attention has always been paid to the mitigation of their lot; unleſs we except their former hard uſage at the mines; and therefore they live more happily than the generality of the noble-boors; nay even more at their eaſe than many free people. Among them are many that are in good circumſtances, and might even be called rich. Indeed they would not feel their vaſſalage, if the crown could not grant them away; as they then run the hazard of falling under the yoke of a hard maſter.

In ukaſes and public documents they are uſually mentioned under ſeveral denominations:

* Somewhat of a ſimilar nature with what was in France called the *corvée*.

as divided into boors of the black-plough, boors of the empire, imperial boors, poſt-boors *, and court-boors. By what particulars each kind is diſtinguiſhed from the others I have not been able with any certainty to learn. A general-officer, who had paſſed many years in the ſeveral provinces, and had made repeated inquiries, gave me the following account in regard to the firſt-mentioned diſtinction: "Boors of the white-"plough formerly meant thoſe who, without "performing taſk-work, and paying taxes in "products, defrayed their impoſts in ready "money; on the other hand, thoſe of the "black-plough were ſuch as, together with ſome "perſonal præſtanda, (which were not always "in all provinces of a like nature,) were to pay "their taxes by the tenth of every corn-harveſt. "Theſe, as well as the former, muſt, beſides this, "pay their head-money, as a ſtated contingent to "the military-cheſt: but both were free boors of "the crown; and, in common with all other "boors, muſt likewiſe furniſh recruits. Whether, "amidſt ſo many alterations that have of late "years been made, theſe diſtinctions are ſtill "obſerved, is more than I can tell; I only "know that the taxes have been very much "increaſed."

* Yamſchtſhiki.

From

From ſome oral and ſome written accounts, I may preſent the reader with the following authentic, though not complete information * on the ſubject:

In the ruſſian laws and ukaſes eight diſtinct kinds of crown-boors are mentioned; namely, 1. Empire-boors †; they belong to nobody in particular, neither to the court, nor to the nobility, nor to the monaſteries; they are therefore members of the empire or burghers of the empire ‡. They for the moſt part conſiſt of boors of the black plough, to be mentioned preſently, *art.* 3. 2. Imperial boors §, who belong to the monarch perſonally, or rather to the court; of whom moſtly conſiſt the court-boors, *art.* 6; others are regiſtered to the ſavodes, or manufactories, where a number of workmen are engaged. 3. Boors of the black plough ‖. The origin of this appellation is now no longer known. But a great part of northern Ruſſia as

* On inquiry, ſeveral perſons, from whom ſome light was reaſonably to be expected on this matter, honeſtly confeſſed that they had never troubled their heads about it; ſo that what information was obtained was got with great difficulty.

† Goſudarſtvenniye.

‡ This expreſſion is to be taken in a quite peculiar ſenſe; and even then will be but obſcure.

§ Goſudarevui. ‖ Tſhernoſoſhniye.

far as Archangel, is almoſt entirely inhabited by them. Their regions are divided into voloſts *, each whereof is an actual, though not an independent, republic. In other reſpects they principally belong to the claſs of empire-boors, *art.* 1 †. 4. Poſt-boors ‡; they are bound, in lieu of the impoſts, to keep poſt-horſes, and have their name from yam, which ſignifies poſt-ſtation; but between every two yamui are ſeveral poſt-ſtations §. 5. Court-boors ‖ are they whoſe ſervice and tributes are deſtined to the ſupport of the imperial court ♂ (not to the cabinet's expences).

* Territories.

† The author of a paper in the hiſtorical magazine of Gottingen, dated from Peterſburg, ſays: the boors of the black plough were crown-boors who were obliged to perform certain ſervices, or pay tithe, for the land allotted them. But all crown-boors are obliged to this. — The truth is, that thoſe of the black plough pay for their fields a ſort of tithe in natura; I ſuppoſe we ſhould call it ſoccage.

‡ Yamtſhtſhiki.

§ Yam ſignifies a ſort of place provided with all requiſites for the keeping in readineſs of poſt-horſes, which they muſt provide.

‖ Dvortzovuiye.

♂ It was ordered by Peter I. that certain boors ſhould pay their taxes (1) at his court or other of his palaces, as

(1) Head-money and obrok.

the

pences). They were formerly under the great court chancery *, whence they have their name. But this being ſince aboliſhed, and all thoſe eſtates and boors being now under the kameralhof, the ſum of 3 millions is annually paid for it from the government-coffers † to the court, or rather to the exchequer ‡. Nevertheleſs the boors will for a long time continue to bear the old name of dvortzovniye, as well as the two next following ſorts of them. 6. Monaſtery-boors §, who formerly belonged to the monaſteries, but now every where in Great, Little, and White Ruſſia, are under the kameralhofs. Properly ſpeaking they belong to the article that immediately enſues. 7. Œconomy-boors ‖ were in Great Ruſſia thoſe boors who,

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the funds whereby the court or ſuch particular palace was to be ſupported. Of this kind of court-boors are thoſe enregiſtered at Katarinenthal near Reval; the caſtle at Riga has alſo 5000 of them. In many places they poſſeſs no lands, but maintain themſelves by various kinds of mechanical employments, as carpenters, bricklayers, &c. or as fiſhermen. Their taxes are received by the kameralhof, but particularly applied, or directly ſent to the empreſs's private purſe.

* Glavnaya dvortzovaya kantzelyariya.

† Statnoiye kaſnatſheiſtvo. ‡ Pridvornaya kontora.

§ Monaſtirſkiye. ‖ Ekonomitſheſkiye.

about the year 1764, were taken from the monaſteries and churches, and made ſubordinate to a particular college of œconomy erected for that purpoſe. That is now aboliſhed, and the boors are under the kameralhofs, but continue to bear their former name. 8. Peltry-tribute-paying boors* are thoſe who deliver their tributes in peltry or furs; which tribute is termed yaſak; and hence theſe latter alſo preſerve their antient appellation †.

One privilege of the crown-boors, which foreigners are not acquainted with, requires to be mentioned. It conſiſts in this, that they may buy of noblemen villages and lands, with the vaſſals belonging to them. In an eſpecial ordinance of the late empreſs, of Aug. 29, 1766, it is ſaid: "The boors of the court-eſtates are permitted to purchaſe of the adjacent owners, "ſmall villages with lands; paying for a ſoul "not more than 30 rubles; however, with this "condition, that the court-boors who have "bought the ſaid lands, either for their own or

* Yaſaſhnuiye.

† The yaſaſhnuiye, the monaſtirſkiye, &c. are therefore ſtill continued in the ukaſes, of which the general regulation for the raiſing of recruits throughout the empire affords a proof. — All theſe ruſſian expreſſions are only adjectives, uniformly relating to the ſubſtantive kreſtyani, boors.

"the

" the crown's money, pay for every deſætine * " of land 1 ruble 25 kopeeks, obrok to the " crown." In another, of January 29, 1788, this privilege is extended to other boors and yamtſhiks. That theſe purchaſes likewiſe are really made is ſeen from an ukaſe iſſued to the ſenate in November 1789, containing not only blank forms and explanations for the provincial governors concerning this matter, but alſo two inſtances appear from it of ſuch purchaſe; one at Murauſlanka, in the ſkopinſkoi diſtrict of the government of Riæſan; where a deſætine and a half of land was bought, with the boors upon it (the kameralhof there inquire of the ſenate concerning this purchaſe, as they ſee no utility to the crown ariſing from it). The other is an inſtance of the ſelect-men of the boors in the village of Faryanof in the government of Yaroſlaf, bought of a major's lady, a boor with his wife, and ſome land contiguous to the village.

If foreigners ſhould imagine that the ordering of odnodvortzi and kozaks into other parts, or the granting away crown-boors as an heritable

* Throughout Ruſſia all ground is eſtimated and apportioned by deſyatines, (or deſætines,) each 80 fathom long and 30 fathom broad.

fief

fief to private perſons, is a degradation of mankind, lowering them to the rank of beaſts of the field *; they ſhould recollect, that in all empires, and at all times, whole provinces, with the whole of their inhabitants, have paſſed over to other maſters, not only by war, conqueſt, marriage, reſignation, treaty, and teſtamentary bequeſts, but alſo by purchaſe. An inſtance of this laſt may be brought from Germany; where it is well known the emperor Charles IV. purchaſed the mark of Brandenburg of the elector Otho, in the year 1373; and the emperor Sigiſmund ſold them again in 1417 to Frederic burggraf of Nurenburg †. This may ſerve to ſhew at leaſt that the practice is not peculiar to Ruſſia.

2. Œconomy-boors. Theſe belonged formerly to the biſhops, churches, and monaſteries; but were taken from them in the year 1764, and placed under the direction of a college of œconomy, from which they have ever ſince had their name; and are now on much

* Some travellers, in their accounts of Ruſſia, have ſaid, that in that empire the peaſants ſcarcely enjoy the rights of cattle.

† In this ſale it is notorious that noblemen, burghers, and boors, with their ſeveral poſſeſſions, were included. They were all ſold together.

the

the ſame footing with the crown-boors. Being, like them, under the inſpection of the kameral-hofs and œconomy-directors, paying particular taxes and enjoying certain privileges: ſo they no longer need to be diſtinguiſhed, but may properly be aſſociated with the crown-boors.

3. BOORS OF THE MINES. They require to be particularized, as ſo peculiarly belonging to private mine-works, that they can never be ſeparated from them, therefore they can never be ſold or exchanged apart, though they are tranſferable with the works to another maſter. However, here are not included thoſe crown-boors who are termed pripiſniye, and are attached to the mine-works ſolely for working out their head-money. Accordingly, only thoſe are meant who act as maſter-workmen, and are delivered as recruits from the boors belonging to the crown and the nobles; but are conveyed as property to the mine-proprietors, yet as inſeparable from the works; and the proprietary mine-boors, whom the crown grants of its vaſſals to numbers of mine-owners, who have no boors belonging to them, as permanent workmen, yet in ſuch manner that they dwell on the territory of the works, belong heritably to ſuch proprietary, (but only ſo long as he is maſter of the works,) and muſt bring up their children ſolely for that mine-work.

4. NOBLE,

4. NOBLE, OR PRIVATE BOORS. Several authors, and among them our countryman Perry, give a lamentable account of their condition. It is, however, not only exaggerated, but almoſt always repreſented in too general a manner. There are indeed lords who ſtrain their exactions too far, and oppreſs their vaſſals; yet this can only be ſaid of thoſe who require too great and too various tributes, or of ſome of the country-nobles, particularly the poorer of them, who carry on the farming buſineſs themſelves, or leave it to the management of a mercileſs upravitel, or overſeer, who by birth is only a vaſſal himſelf. Their condition, indeed, depends entirely on the humour or caprice of their lord *; yet it is not to be denied that a great part of them, eſpecially ſuch as belong to wealthy lords, who require neither taſk-ſervice nor deliveries of products, but only take a moderate obrok, live happily, grow rich, and would hardly be perſuaded to change their condition for what paſſes under the name of freedom, but is commonly nothing more than a brilliant conceit. As an inſtance we need only take the village

* The ſame thing happens in the petty principalities of Germany: ſome of the princes by gentle treatment render their ſubjects happy, while others oppreſs them by taxes, impoſts, and harſh methods.

Boretſh,

Boretſh, not far from Moſco, belonging to count Vladimir Orloff, and which may be viſited by any traveller that chooſes. There every cottage nearly reſembles a little hotel; the people go dreſſed in ſilks, have coſtly furniture and utenſils, live on a grand ſcale, and entertain ſumptuouſly the numerous ſtrangers that viſit them; they keep up a connexion not only with merchants in the adjacent towns, but inſtead of agriculture follow gardening, from which, on account of their proximity to Moſco, they derive great profits: and theſe it is that enable them to live as they do. Neither muſt it be ſuppoſed that theſe are the only vaſſals that live in affluence; as, beſides the rich villages Ivanſka and Pavloffki, belonging to count Sheremetyef, there are many others, which eſcape the notice of foreigners in their haſty travels, who from ſome poor ones are too apt to conclude on all; and it is not ſurprifing that, from the wretched looks of the Eſthonians, they ſhould be led into this miſtake.

The dues to their lord are ſettled by no laws; ſome pay the obrok, others perform taſk-ſervice, or, in lieu of it, deliver certain portions of their natural products; from others again all theſe are demanded: however, the obrok alone, eſpecially where the lord is rich, is the moſt uſual.

Many

Many take, for every male head only 3, others 5, and ſome, from the moſt opulent of their boors 25 rubles, or even more. — Thoſe who fare the worſt are the private boors who are obliged to perform taſk-ſervice, in lieu of the obrok, at the mine-works of their lord, which may lie at a great diſtance; and perhaps the length of the way is not at all conſidered *.

For this uſefulneſs of ſubjects, which brings the government ſo many important products, at the ſame time giving energy to the army and navy, and contributes the moſt to the public revenues, not much care has been taken during the former reigns, though the intereſt of the ſovereign and the empire ſo eſſentially required it. Even Peter I. engaged as he was in ſo many important undertakings, could perhaps find no time for properly attending to this object. So much the more earneſtly was it taken up by the late empreſs. A ſtriking proof of it is ſeen in her inſtruction for the code of laws †; wherein ſhe not only praiſes the Japaneſe for the maxim adopted by them, that ſervants ought not to be too harſhly treated, as it readily leads

* Thus profeſſor Pallas tells us, that ſome of Mr. Demidof's boors have above 600 verſts to go to work at their maſter's iron-works, that is 200 engliſh miles.

† Inſtructions, ſect xcii.

to

to reſiſtance *; but ſhe declares expreſsly † her diſſatisfaction at the ſeverity with which this inferior claſs is ſometimes treated: "However, it "cannot be denied (ſays the empreſs) that "they are at times much oppreſſed." And then declares it to be her wiſh and her inclination that vaſſalage ſhould be aboliſhed; and, if this ſhould meet with obſtacles, yet that the condition of the boors might be bettered, and all oppreſſive abuſes ſtopped. But, not contented with expreſſing her wiſhes, ſhe did actually adopt ſeveral meaſures to effectuate her benevolent inclinations, by inſtituting a regular tribunal for the boors, entirely choſen out of their own body; delivering the boors at the mines from oppreſſion; appointing overſeers and guardians to prevent every ſpecies of violence, &c. and on every occaſion recommending gentleneſs and humanity, of which ſhe herſelf ſet ſo great an example. All is not to be brought about at once, eſpecially in matters where the antient prerogatives of the nobility demand a diſcreet reſpect.

It was probably in conſequence of this imperial declaration, that the free œconomical ſo-

* A very important hint, and highly deſerving of conſideration.

† Inſtruct. part. ii. ſect. iii. p. 190 & ſqq.

ciety

ciety at St. Peterſburg, a few years ſince propoſed the important political queſtion: Whether it would be proper to aboliſh vaſſalage in Ruſſia, with a prize for the moſt ſatisfactory anſwer? The ſociety received papers in the french language from ſeveral candidates; one, extolling liberty, but adviſing great caution in the introducing of it. Another Frenchman * ſent an elegant diſſertation, which, with all its beauties of diction, was found impracticable: it was like an alarm-bell †, recommending the immediate diffuſion of liberty throughout the country. On this ſubject a great variety of matters come into conſideration. For, to mention only a few, it is well known that the crown is not willing to interfere directly in concerns between the nobles and their boors, when the rights of the former may come in colliſion: ſecondly, the crown-boor, while he continues ſuch, feels his vaſſalage but little, if at all: thirdly, many vaſſals live more happily than if they were free. Let us only compare the ſubſtantial and ſometimes opulent ruſſian boor with the peaſantry of ſome other countries, needy and cruſhed under taxes,

* Probably, Marmontel, at leaſt from the captivating ſtyle and other characteriſtics, he was generally held to be the author.

† This was the title to the manuſcript.

while

while they boaſt of their liberty. Fourthly, if liberty ſhould be ſuddenly and generally introduced, it muſt be done by an edict: but what confuſion would not hence ariſe, as the people have no idea of liberty but by its connection with licentiouſneſs: fifthly, the boor muſt always pay taxes; if they be moderate, he may ſtill live comfortably in his way, whether we call him vaſſal, or even ſlave, for the name ſignifies nothing. Even the taſk-works are often eaſier than the heavy ſums that are paid for every article of life by taxes in many countries. Sixthly, it has been remarked, that by taſk-works more products are gained, eſpecially with great land-owners. Seventhly, the introduction of liberty might be very prejudicial, not only to the mine-works, but alſo to agriculture; nay, it already appears that, by extending the obrok, in ſeveral diſtricts the latter has ſuffered a decline. Eighthly, what ſhould the boor do with liberty if he be forbidden to poſſeſs heritable property *? &c. If, as was done in the late reign, care be taken to protect the peaſantry againſt oppreſſors, and ſome bounds be ſet to the power of the nobles; if the utmoſt endeavours be

* It might indeed be gradually permitted him, but it would be attended with a thouſand difficulties, eſpecially in regard to the noble-boors.

uſed to keep the taxes moderate, and the hope of being allowed boldly to poſſeſs ſome property, though it be only perſonal, be not defeated, but rather eſtabliſhed; then even the vaſſal may live contented and happy in his humble habitation. And in ſuch good circumſtances very many of the boors belonging to the crown and the nobles actually are. This was evidently becoming more general from day to day, as the empreſs ſo uniformly diſplayed her unwearied attention to promote the welfare of the claſs of vaſſals. Examples were not wanting under her adminiſtration, of noblemen being brought to ſevere account for cruelties exerciſed on their vaſſals *. Indeed the many wiſe regulations that had been made, and were ſtill making to the end of her reign, opened a fine proſpect for futurity.

In concluding this article, it may be obſerved, that the moſt uſual way by which a vaſſal is

* A german nobleman, with his lady, have been confined for ſeveral years paſt in a place on the ſhore of the Baltic, for having, both of them, exerciſed much cruelty in the chaſtiſement of their vaſſals. — The very ſafety of the lord, without any other motive, ſhould reſtrain him from ſuch behaviour to his people. When once they are enraged they ſet no bounds to their fury; it has not unfrequently happened that a too auſtere landlord, or his no leſs imprudent bailiff, has been miſerably murdered by the boors.

ſuch,

ſuch, is by being born of a vaſſal *. By the common law of Livonia every child born of an unmarried female vaſſal belongs, without regard to the father, to the eſtate where it is born. Peter I. however, by a ukaſe in 1716, ordained, that ſuch a child ſhall be free if a free man have cauſed it to be baptiſed in his name, as father.

* In Livonia, the laws mention ſome other ways; however they are ſeldom heard of at preſent. There have been caſes, where free people or their children have been ſold for vaſſals; yet the tribunals grant them relief, at leaſt the latter, when they come to demand their freedom.

VIEW

OF THE

RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

BOOK V.

THE GOVERNMENT OF THE EMPIRE, OR THE MONARCH.

THE importance and the variety of the objects that fall under this title, demand a particular diviſion of our work. But, in order to bring into ſome ſort of arrangement the obſervations that naturally occur, ſome whereof may be conſidered as mere ſuppoſitions, and others as only queſtions *; we ſhall reduce them, without much ſollicitude in the choice, under ſeveral heads.

* At this the reader will not be ſurpriſed if he conſider that this matter has been but little agitated; and that the inquirer muſt frequently meet with obſcurities, which probably will never be quite cleared up.

SECTION I.

The Succeſſion.

RUSSIA, as far upwards as hiſtory reaches, has ever been an hereditary empire. For, though Ruric, on being called to the throne, did not aſcend it on this expreſs condition *, yet it was filled by his deſcendants till the race became extinct; that is, according to the uſual computation, from about the year 862 to 1598. Such an uninterrupted ſucceſſion, againſt which the nation never manifeſted the ſlighteſt objection, be it grounded as it may, is of greater validity than the moſt ſolemn compact, and ſhould be conſidered as the acknowledged conſtitution of the empire. The people, at leaſt the moſt enlightened of them, found it convenient and ſalutary, as obviating the confuſions and calamities that ariſe from election. Accordingly, after the extinction of the race of Ruric, it was reſtored with all its force in another dynaſty. For, when Michaila Feodorovitch Romanof

* Records which might here be conſulted to advantage are not known, and perhaps are not in being. The archives of the empire have been ſearched in vain for accounts of a far more modern date.

aſcended

aſcended the throne in 1613, a charter was executed confirming it to him and all his poſterity *; by which act Ruſſia was in a formal manner declared a real hereditary empire.

The occaſional modifications of this hereditary right of ſucceſſion may be ſuppoſed, from want of records, to be ſcarcely deducible from remoter periods, eſpecially as hiſtory, which ought to ſerve as a guide, relates events whence many doubts and uncertainties ariſe. The ſon does not always immediately ſucceed to his father in the government; one example of this, among others, is in the grand duke Vladimir Vſevolodovitch, who, dying in 1125, was ſucceeded by his three ſons in the order of their birth; only the third, namely Vatſheſlaf, reigned at laſt for ſome time conjointly with the ſon of his brother. It has frequently happened that the ſons of the deceaſed grand duke have contended for the throne with their uncles. However, in early times a great regard was paid to ſeniority; thus Sviætopolk in 1093 mounted the throne, as the

* This appears from Schlœtzer's hiſtorical enquiry, p. 10. where it is alſo ſhewn that the original is among the archives of the empire, as that profeſſor ſaw it there. The queſtion, whether they who executed it were authorized and commiſſioned to that purpoſe, or whether they repreſented the nation, is nothing to the buſineſs, as the latter approved of it, at leaſt by their ſilence; and this hereditary right was already 700 years old.

eldeſt of the reigning family. Therefore when Peter I. wanted to introduce ſome alteration in the antient rule of ſucceſſion, he was obliged to add ſharp menaces to his declaration; and yet great diſſatisfaction was ſhewn on the occaſion, though even by that ordinance the original ſucceſſion was not deſtroyed, and though there was no law in being that regulates the ſucceſſion, at leaſt none that is known.

The hiſtory of the preſent century * ſhews that the crown devolves on either ſex without diſtinction; ſo that, though we ſee in the family of Peter I. the male heir at times to have precedence, yet not an abſolute pre-eminence over the females, ſince Catharine I. did not govern as regent during the minority of her kinſman, but was acknowledged as next heir in quality of conſort to the defunct emperor, and acceded to the throne as empreſs in preference to her kinſman †.

* To attempt going farther back into remoter periods would be fruitleſs, as moſt of the events of thoſe times, for want of a regular hiſtory, are by much not ſufficiently known or unfolded. For this reaſon nothing is here ſaid of the grand ducheſs Olga, of the tenth century, &c.

† The Chineſe muſt have been but little acquainted with the european forms of government, as well as with the antient hiſtory of Perſia, if we may judge by the aſtoniſhment expreſſed at this by their great officers of ſtate: but they were ſoon taught better.

Some

Some do not ſcruple to affirm that Ruſſia has al-always been the happieſt and has always increaſed in power and authority under a female reign.

We learn from hiſtory that ſometimes the monarch has been elected. It was by election that Vaſſilli Vaſſillievitch the Blind was ſeated on the throne. But the lateſt inſtance of this was when the crown was offered to the dowager ducheſs, afterwards empreſs Anne. By her father ſhe had ſome right to it, but by far not the neareſt, as her elder ſiſter was ſtill alive, and the teſtament of Catharine I. was againſt her. But who were the electors, or rather who have the right of election, and in what caſes, we have no other means of diſcovering than by ſearching into hiſtory for events of that nature, and thence to form what concluſions we are able, ſince there is no written law upon the ſubject. Without going up to the reign of a Ruric for tranſactions veiled in obſcurity, the hiſtory of the middle age takes notice of the grand duke Vaſſilli Vaſſillievitch the Blind, who in 1425 took the reins of empire, being placed on the grand ducal throne at the unanimous requeſt of the moſcovite people, with the concurrence of all the princes, as alſo of the clergy *. It ſeemed

* So Lomonoſof expreſsly ſays in his compendious annals of the ruſſian ſovereigns. I take him for a guide, on the ſuppoſition that he has drawn from authentic ſources. It is impoſſible to quote originals on this ſubject.

neceſſary

neceſſary to mention this, becauſe here certain electors are ſpecified, namely, people, princes, and clergy; in which, however, ſeveral doubts and difficulties occur. Beſides, this event belongs not properly to this place, as that grand duke demanded the government by right of ſucceſſion, and the horde had at that time great influence. Examples ought to be taken from thoſe times when the nation was entirely free, and under no foreign influence whatever. Such as when Boris Feodorovitch Godunof, in 1598, was ſeated on the throne "by the people* and "the boyars;" and on his death, in 1604, his ſon Feodor Boriſovitch Godunof, "by all ranks "of the moſcovite people." Shortly after this, Vaſſilli Ivanovitch Zuiſkoi was elected tzar †. During his reign ſome diſcontented boyars elected Vladiſlaf, a poliſh prince, to be their ſovereign, but without effect ‡. In the year 1613 Mi-

* Lomonoſof, p. 37. Another hiſtorian ſays, that the people almoſt forced him on the throne. But here neither the princes nor the clergy are mentioned as electors: the former perhaps are included among the boyars.

† Here Lomonoſof does not at all ſpecify who the electors were; probably becauſe the authorities he conſulted are ſilent upon it. — It is well known they were all three related to the tzarian family, extinct in the male line.

‡ The above-mentioned elections ſhew, that, with the relations of the reigning family, ſtrangers and native or foreign princes came into conſideration.

chaila

chaila Feodorovitch Romanof acceded to the throne by unanimous election "in a general af-"fembly of the boyars and the other eſtates of "the country," yet partly alſo as a near relation to the tzarian family now extinct in the male lineage; as alſo in virtue of nomination, by which his father had already been heir to the throne.

Now the firſt queſtion is, who are we to underſtand by the people. Lomonoſof ſpeaks principally of the moſcovite people, which is an expreſſion of great ambiguity; for it may denote the burghers of the city of Moſco, excluſively; but then it muſt have been previouſly a city: in no law or proclamation is ſuch right of election granted to it; whereas to other cities (ſeveral of which are far more antient) this right has been given. But it may likewiſe ſignify all the people of the whole empire, which is ſometimes denominated from its metropolis: however, it is not to be imagined that the diſtant tribes and people were ever called to an election. Laſtly, by this term may be implied only the chief nation, that which is properly ruſſian: yet certainly the country-folks, the moſt numerous of all, were not conſulted on theſe important occaſions. Conſequently, we muſt ſuppoſe it to have reſted

with ſome *, who took the buſineſs upon them, or who had the confidence of the nation; and then, as the people approved of their choice, at leaſt by their ſilence, it might properly be ſaid that they elected †. Beſides, as it often happens on like occaſions, the people of the capital, or the Moſcovites, under the conduct of a few forward and leading men, might have greatly contributed to it ‡.

2dly,

* It would be difficult to aſcertain them; we muſt undoubtedly ſeek them among the following, as the archives of the empire afford no light on the ſubject.

† What is done by ſome few, if not contradicted by the reſt, is frequently and not improperly conſidered as done by all. Thus the empreſs Elizabeth in her firſt manifeſto might juſtly ſay, that all good ſubjects had wiſhed her to mount the paternal throne. And the empreſs Anna might, without adducing other reaſons, annul the election-capitulation ſhe had ſigned, ſince ſhe regarded herſelf as heireſs to the crown, and was petitioned to annul it by a number of conſiderable noblemen, in the name of the people.

‡ In the ſucceeding revolutions the populace of the reſidence, being ſet in motion, have ſometimes, with ſome ſoldiers of the guards, made themſelves of conſequence. And, indeed, how eaſy is it for a few active perſons, by preſents, promiſes, artful reports, and above all by the pretence of danger to religion, to lead the rabble at their pleaſure; ſo that they may be inſtrumental to revolutions and

other

2dly, The princes here ſpoken of ſeem to have been either of that claſs who were afterwards called boyars, or they who poſſeſſed their partitioned principalities. Of the latter we find it ſaid by a ruſſian hiſtorian *, that, ſubſequent to the death of Mſtiſlaf, they had arrogated to themſelves ſo much power, that they looked upon the grand duke as their equal, and allowed him no precedence but what his title gave him. Such princes have long ſince been no more ſeen in Ruſſia; but when Vaſſilli Vaſſillievitch the Blind was elected they were ſtill in being. The preſent numerous ſtock of princes are no legitimate delegates of the people, nor ever were authorized to proceed to ſo important an election, and have no pre-eminence over the other nobles.

3. The clergy, as in other empires and kingdoms, found alſo in Ruſſia numerous opportunities formerly of acquiring great influence and authority †. Accordingly, we are informed by

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other purpoſes, though perhaps ſcarcely ten perſons of them all know any thing of what is intended! Happy, when ſuch ſcenes paſs off without diſturbance!

* Tatiſchtſchef.

† As in other countries, ſo in Ruſſia, they had a little more knowledge than the laity; hence they acquired acceſs and influence. In aid of this perhaps here and there ſuperſtition and cunning were made to play their parts.

Tatiſcht-

Tatiſchtſchef, that in the diſaſtrous periods of the empire, the people ſhewed more reverence to them than to their princes; by which they got ſo far the aſcendant, that tzar Alexei Michailovitch was prevented from making the full uſe of his power, by the ambitious patriarch Nicon. Accordingly it muſt have been a very eaſy matter for the clergy, eſpecially for the higher orders of them, to mix in the affair of elections, and to lead the ſubmiſſive people to their purpoſes. Nor was this impropriety entirely annihilated till the time of Peter the Great, who confined the clergy to their proper department.

4. The boyars have been already occaſionally mentioned. It only remains to be remarked, that though they are always ſpoken of in hiſtory as perſons of diſtinction, yet it expreſsly mentions that they received their dignity from the ſovereign alone, that it was entirely perſonal, and by no means deſcended from father to ſon *. Hence it is apparent that it depended ſolely on the will of the monarch, whether he would have many or few boyars, or whether he would let

* As a proof of this the reader is referred to the life of count Scheremetof, publiſhed in Dohm's Materials; where we find, p. 403, that Nikita Scheremetof dying as boyar in 1566, his only ſon Peter was raiſed to the ſame dignity, whoſe ſecond ſon Vaſſilli was likewiſe made boyar in 1641, and again his ſon Peter in 1659.

them

them altogether die away. Conſequently they can never be conſidered as native privileged deputies of the people *, nor as perſons who could curb the power of the ſovereign, or reſiſt him in the undue exertions of it. Only on favourable occaſions they grew more bold and aſſuming, and ſought to extend their conſequence. It has before been ſhewn that they, with the principal clergy, conferred a ſpecies of nobleſſe on particular perſons; and Tatiſchtſchef mentions, that, upon the depoſition of tzar Zuiſkoi, ſeven boyars, and eſpecially three of them, had uſurped ſo much authority, that they brought great diſtreſs upon the empire. At the drawing up of the Uloſchenie, as we gather from its preamble, they, with the heads of the clergy, were conſulted upon it; yet probably only as privy-counſellors, as they were generally noticed as ſuch in the ukaſes. But, in order to prevent any farther uſurpations and miſtakes, an order was iſſued in 1701 by Peter I. that they ſhould no longer be mentioned at all in ukaſes. From

* What the word boyar or boyarin properly means, I cannot preciſely aſcertain. In the dictionaries it is made to imply a lord, a perſon of quality, a nobleman. In a note upon Raicewich's obſervations on Moldavia, it peculiarly denotes a ſoldier.

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the great authority they enjoyed, and from the deſire of extending it, ſo natural to man, we are eaſily led to preſume, that they acted the foremoſt parts in theſe elections, if they were not the prime managers of them: they doubtleſs thought themſelves the firſt perſonages after the ſovereign and the privileged repreſentatives of the people, eſpecially of all the reſt of the nobility; and this ſeems to be the reaſon why the latter are not named among the electors.

5. The ſtates of the moſcovite people, and the eſtates of the country. — What kind of people and claſſes are here meant, I cannot pretend to ſay, if they differ from thoſe already mentioned. Legitimate national eſtates, having an authority derived from compact or privileges, (according to the common import of the term in ſome other empires,) are not known in Ruſſia; nor could they ever have exiſted there, as the power of the ſovereign was originally and has always been unlimited. One might almoſt venture to affirm, that, by the eſtates, as electors are principally meant the boyars and the clergy, who appear nominally as ſuch, and often had great influence. Perhaps ſome of the courtiers and the neighbouring nobility, might have joined with them, as well as other enterpriſing perſons, and eſpecially the

the people of the reſidence *; other towns whoſe conſequence was not very great, we are certain neither appointed nor required any election-deputies. Lomonoſof, indeed, ſpeaks of a general aſſembly of country-eſtates; but it would be extremely difficult to give any tolerable ſenſe to this expreſſion if we would extend the limits of ſuch a convention beyond the above-mentioned perſons in the neighbourhood of Moſco. For, although ſome traces of conſiderable aſſemblies do appear in hiſtory †; yet, at leaſt in thoſe turbulent and ſtormy times about the year 1613, when the family of Romanof was elected to the ſucceſſion, a convocation of election-deputies out of the empire is not to be imagined; and if they were actually aſſembled, it would have been nothing more than an anarchical mob, as having

* All theſe are mere ſurmiſes. The acts and records of theſe elections, perhaps among the archives of the empire, alone could place this matter in a proper light, if they were but known.

† Not to touch here on what Neſtor tells us of Rurik's election, in which obſcurities abound, I ſhall only quote what Tatiſchtſchef mentions, that Romanus, prince of Halitz, intended to hold a diet, to which he invited all the princes; but they did not come; and that Ivan the Great cauſed a law to be confirmed in a diet. — At the compiling of the Uloſchenie the boyars and clergy ſeem to have been aſſembled; but not in a diet. The two latter had a legitimate chief in the perſon of the ſovereign.

no lawful preſident or ſpring of action; conſequently no other election was to be expected, than what ſome enterpriſing men, with violence, or by bribes and perſuaſions, brought about.

In the former half of the current century, it ſeemed as if the council held itſelf authoriſed to take an active part in the election of the empreſs Anna *. Indeed it is ſaid in the manifeſto that came out on the occaſion, Feb. 4, 1730, that ſhe was raiſed to the throne by the unanimous choice of the ruſſian nation: there were, therefore, three deputed bodies at it, on the part of the council, the ſenate, and the commonalty. But Schlœtzer, who appeals to this in his hiſtorical inquiries, has clearly expreſſed himſelf on its true meaning, by ſaying, that here are three imperial eſtates in a manner ſpecified by name †; and

* This tranſaction is here noticed merely for the ſake of an apparently neceſſary remark; it not being exactly to the purpoſe, as there were heirs to the throne.

† If there had then been no heir to the throne, and conſequently an election was neceſſary, then the queſtion would have really been, to whom does the care of it belong? There were no ſtates of the empire; not even an officer, who could lawfully take upon him to call an aſſembly. In lieu of the former boyars, here were now a ſenate, a council, a cabinet, and a privy-council. But which of theſe had ever any commiſſion to declare to the people the vacancy of the throne, or to direct an election to fill it? Some meaſures are

and that of the clergy no mention is made *. Juſt as little had the council full powers, or any right to preſcribe a mode or conditions of election in regard to the empreſs Anna, eſpecially as ſhe was among the heirs to the throne. Very different was the caſe, when the prince Vaſſilli Zuiſkoi, who was regarded as an entire ſtranger, was choſen tzar, on the extinction of the reign-

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are only to be juſtified or excuſed by neceſſity and the ſilence of the laws. But how came the commonalty to be brought on the carpet? We know that antiently the ſoldiers at Rome and at Conſtantinople, took upon them, either alone or in conjunction with the clergy, to diſpoſe of the crown. — Here the conſtitution of the empire, for preventing all calamitous accidents, ſeems to want a ſalutary regulation. Whoever ſhall provide it, and ſecure it in perpetuity, will be one of the greateſt benefactors to the empire it ever had. Perhaps it would have had a place in the expected new code of laws.

* Probably becauſe they are comprehended in the aggregate term nation, or becauſe they ſeemed to have loſt their former great influence; or becauſe ſome german miniſters, then in high favour, did not happen to think of them. The empreſs Elizabeth named them expreſsly in her firſt manifeſto, where we find, that all the faithful ſubjects of the ſpiritual and temporal orders, particularly the regiments of life-guards, had unanimouſly beſought her graciouſly to accept of the throne of her fathers, to which ſhe had the neareſt right by birth. — That by the guards, or by ſome of that corps, many things have been formerly brought about, is univerſally known.

ing houſe: whereby the nation re-entered into its original rights; and, if it had thought fit, might have propoſed to him certain conditions. Accordingly, Tatiſchtſchef aſſerts, that the capitulation, which, not the people, but a company of ſome grandees, by their uſurped authority, preſcribed to him, was of great injury to the empire.

We find alſo that ſovereigns, during their lifetime have choſen and appointed the ſucceſſor. So the tzar Feodor Ivanovitch bequeathed the throne in 1598 to his kinſman Feodor Nikititch Romanof; and tzar Feodor Alexevitch on his death-bed appointed his youngeſt brother Peter, afterwards emperor, his ſole heir *. The ſame thing has ſeveral times happened in the preſent century, by teſtaments, decrees, ceſſions, and the like. The right or full power to ſuch a meaſure, ſeems to require no proof; as, 1. the ſovereigns of Ruſſia reign with unlimited authority; but,

* Though both nominations partly failed of accompliſhment, yet it was not becauſe they were thought invalid, but from the occurrence of ſome events which prevented their being put in execution; as afterwards the empreſs Elizabeth annulled the nomination of prince Ivan. But ſuch nominations in earlier times as that of tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch (to which Peter I. appeals in his regulation of the ſucceſſion, but of which the records are unknown) were acknowledged to be of undoubted validity.

more

moreover, 2. neither records nor any other memorials can be produced, whereby the people reſerved to themſelves an influence, or fixed the ſucceſſion to the reigning family*; and, 3. they never contradicted ſuch nomination, but approved it by their ſilence, and of courſe acknowledged the full right of the monarch: which arguments are ſtrengthened and increaſed, on conſidering, 4. that the people at the very beginning made their throne hereditary, and afterwards renewed and confirmed this mode of ſucceſſion, as confeſſedly advantageous, principally in the view of avoiding all the confuſions that would enſue on every interregnum, or in their own proceedings at elections; and thereby ſolemnly renounced its concern in the ſucceſſion, ſo long as the reigning houſe is in being; leaving it, in ſo far as it compriſed the original right of election, to their ſovereign and his unlimited will. That this antient right of the ſovereign to name his ſucceſſor, exerciſed in former times, and acknowledged by the nation,

* Indeed it was required of the empreſs Anne, previous to her acceſſion, that ſhe ſhould not appoint a ſucceſſor without the concurrence of the ſenate: though this was no demand of the nation, but merely of a college, and was immediately annulled at the requeſt of a part of the nobility.

and ſo frequently neceſſary to the well-being of the empire, may be exerted, follows accordingly from the eſſential conſtitution of the empire, which bears the form of a fundamental law. Therefore it required no written ordinance to make it valid. Peter the Great, however, iſſued ſuch an ordinance, dated the 5th of February 1722, but merely on account of a well-known event, in order to give his will and his views the ſtamp of a greater ſolemnity by a written law, and to prevent any ill conſequences that might enſue upon ſome diſſatisfactions that had been expreſſed. Hereupon aroſe the queſtions, how this ordinance was to be called *; whether it ſhould be deemed a fundamental law of the empire †, or whether at leaſt it has a general obligatory

* Gebauer in the plan of his hiſtory calls it a perpetual law of the empire. It was manifeſtly, on its firſt appearance, a law of the empire; but the epithet perpetual was given it by the author without due conſideration. He muſt have known nothing of the ſubſequent repeal of it.

† On this ſubject, a learned controverſy aroſe between Buſching and Schlœtzer. The former affirms, even in the laſt edition of his Geography, that ordinance to be a fundamental law of the empire, and even the only one in writing; whereas Schlœtzer proves in his hiſtorical inquiries, that it can by no means be regarded as ſuch, for the veriеſt deſpot cannot reign or command after his death. But here the fallacy

obligatory and perpetual energy, as it was one while not obſerved *, and afterwards almoſt totally repealed: though it is not to be denied that the empreſs Anna expreſsly appealed to it †.

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fallacy lies ſolely in the expreſſion: for every monarch reigns after his death, whenever he confers a privilege or a patent of nobility to a man and his heirs for ever. And does not every man that leaves a will preſide over his affairs after his death?

* Not to mention other occurrences of a like nature, it is evident that the empreſs Elizabeth, who endeavoured to preſerve and follow all the regulations of her father with a conſcientious exactitude, yet on her acceſſion to the throne, ſo far from holding the ordinance to be a fundamental law of the empire, ſhe denied its validity. For, though ſhe regarded the acceſſion of Anne as contrary to law, yet ſhe could not deny that ſhe was really empreſs; and therefore by the father's pretended fundamental law of the empire, had the right of naming a ſucceſſor. But, as ſhe expreſsly annulled this nomination, reſting on the ordinance of Peter I. ſhe thereby publicly declared what binding force ſhe attributed to that ordinance. Indeed ſhe might have derived her right to the throne partly from the teſtament of her mother Catharine I. but this was not entirely executed when Elizabeth took upon her the government of the empire; and therefore no mention is made of it in her manifeſto.

† This ſhe did becauſe that ordinance favoured her views, to which ſhe thought to give more ſolemnity and force from a written law. At leaſt ſuch were the expectations of the cabinet miniſter.

It is mere evaſion to ſay that the ordinance of Peter I. is a fundamental law of the empire, not for the ſovereign, but for the ſubjects in regard to their oaths *; as they are at any rate bound to obedience †. Every ſucceſſor of Peter I. is doubtleſs at liberty to repeal this ordinance, or to depart from it, ſince his power is as unlimited as that of the monarch by whom it was framed. So every one of them can exerciſe in his own perſon the right of nominating a ſucceſſor; but the rights connected with the unlimited ſovereignty, and flowing from the conſtitution, to which the nomination of a ſucceſſor, for the above-mentioned reaſons may be added, adhere to the throne; which is in ſome meaſure ſeen by the conduct of Peter II.

In the nomination of a ſucceſſor, by the unlimited power of the ſovereign, it ſeems to

* Peter I. cauſed his ordinance of ſucceſſion to be acknowledged on oath by all his ſubjects, which otherwiſe uſed to be done only by homages; and added ſevere threats to it, which, as Schlœtzer obſerves, is not the part of a fundamental law: however, this, even in republics, admits of an exception.

† It would have been a ridiculous and aukward circumſtance if a ſubject had thought fit to declare the acceſſion of the empreſs Elizabeth illegal by reaſon of the pretended fundamental law of Peter I.

depend

depend on him, whether he will appoint to the throne one of his ſons or daughters, or whom he pleaſes of the members of the reigning family. But the matter immediately aſſumes another aſpect, on putting the queſtion: whether, paſſing by all the princes and princeſſes of the reigning houſe, the nomination may fall on a perfect ſtranger? The ordinance of Peter the great, and the commentary upon it, ſoon after publiſhed by authority, contain an anſwer to this queſtion in the affirmative. But then the firſt and univerſally acknowledged fundamental law, the inheritance of the throne in the reigning houſe, (whence the very right of appointing a ſucceſſor is partly to be derived,) ſeems to fall to the ground *; not to mention the lamentable condition into which ſuch a ſtep might ſoon involve the empire. Laſtly, the queſtion: whether the ſovereign may preſcribe to the ſucceſſor appointed by him certain limitations and rules of government? would not eaſily be anſwered. At leaſt they ſhould ſeem to be no otherwiſe

* It might therefore be aſked: whether the ſtranger, on the ſaid ſuppoſition, could ever receive a well-founded right to the ſucceſſion by ſuch an appointment; and, whether the power of the ſovereign, when his family is extinct, extends to ſtrangers?

binding

binding than in virtue of a voluntary and ſolemn promiſe; as the ſucceſſor, as ſoon as he had aſcended the throne, fills it with the ſame unlimited ſway as his predeceſſor.

On a vacancy in the throne, the heir * takes poſſeſſion of it, as in other countries, without needing any invitation, acts of homage, or the like. However, the homage is uſually performed in all cities and towns, where an officer is appointed to receive it †. It is paid by every claſs of ſubjects ‡. The ſovereign may diſpenſe with it; as the ſubjects, without that ceremony, are bound to fidelity and obedience: however, as a venerable rite, it is generally obſerved; though in revolutions it has been neglected, as examples in the preſent century have ſhewn. The coronation ſolemnity too has for many centuries been cuſtomary in Ruſſia, and is ſtill preſerved

* Whether by birthright; or, where that is not pretended, in virtue of nomination; as the ſure and legitimate ways to the throne.

† In the oath of fealty mention is ſometimes made of the heir apparent.

‡ It is not uſual to adminiſter it to vaſſals, at leaſt not always or univerſally; they being regarded as people who have no will of their own, but are ſubject to that of their lord.

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alſo as a venerable uſage *: conſidered in itſelf perhaps it might not be neceſſary, as the ſovereign previous to it exerciſes the whole of his authority; therefore it has frequently been poſtponed for a long time; and, indeed, the emperor Peter III. was not crowned at all, nor were any preparations made for that purpoſe during his ſhort reign.

Since the introduction of chriſtianity into Ruſſia, the ſovereigns have always profeſſed themſelves of the orthodox greek church; therefore the perſons appointed to the throne, or coming into the imperial family, previouſly adopt that faith, if they were before of any other confeſſion. Some affirm this antient cuſtom to be a fundamental law of the empire; at leaſt we may well imagine that the majority of the principal nation, who have always ſhewn a ſtrong attachment to their church, ſhould be of this opinion.

It may juſt be remarked, by the way, that according to the manner of ſpeaking here in uſe, inſtead of the ſovereign, they ſay, the crown: for example; that is the buſineſs of the crown; an order is come from the crown, &c.

* On this occaſion the ſovereign is anointed with holy oil, and puts the crown on himſelf; as, among other teſtimonies, may be ſeen by the manifeſto of the late empreſs, bearing date July 7, 1762.

SECTION II.

The title of the Sovereign.

FORMERLY the ſovereign was always called Great Duke, in ruſs Velikie Kniæs, which, according to its original interpretation and import, muſt be tranſlated as above. If, as we are aſſured by ſome ruſſian annaliſts, the territory of Novgorod, as well as that of Kief, were great-dukedoms ſo early as the ninth century, then the origin of this title is apparent *. Yet this interpretation may alſo lead us to ſuppoſe it meant to diſtinguiſh the ſovereign from all the other princes, eſpecially the reigning ones, of which there have always been ſeveral, as far as authentic hiſtory reaches †. But all the ruſſian prin-

* But here it may be aſked, whether perhaps they might not be grand duchies, becauſe their governors were originally called grand dukes. And then the matter would not be at all the more elucidated. Of the firſt riſe of this title I do not recollect to have read any ſatisfactory account.

† They were of two ſeveral kinds. Some poſſeſſed ſeparate and independent principalities or great duchies; of which kind were particularly Novgorod, Kief, and afterwards Vladimir, &c.; others had a principality dependent on the ruſſian government allotted them merely for their ſupport.

principalities were united in one monarchy, under one ſole regent, upwards of 326 years ſince. Ivan Vaſſillievitch, as it is commonly aſſerted, declared himſelf tzar in the year 1547; yet in the hiſtory of this empire we find that title expreſsly given to its ſovereigns long before *, whether they actually bore it †, or whether the old annaliſts uſed it only to ſignify a monarchical dig-

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ſupport. It ſeems not poſſible now to aſcertain what rights the latter enjoyed, and to what extent they with their principalities belonged to the body politic. All we pretend to know is, that Vladimir, who began to reign in 981, and is frequently called a ſaint, aſſigned a principality to each of his ſons for his maintenance, thus making them ſeparate princes, but with this expreſs condition, that they ſhould all be under the ſupremacy of him and his ſucceſſors.

* So it is ſaid by Lomonoſof. Vladimir the ſaint, who died in 1015, had aſſumed the title of tzar upon his marriage with a greek princeſs. The ſame author affirms, that not only Vladimir Vſevolodovitch Monomachus, who began to reign in 1114, was crowned tzar of all Ruſſia; but alſo that Vaſſilli Ivanovitch, who died in 1535, ſtyled himſelf in the latter years of his reign, tzar and autocrator of all Ruſſia.

† If they were actually called tzars (which, before we can admit, ought to be more clearly ſhewn), then it is evident that this title was not firſt introduced into Ruſſia in 1547; but then it is inexplicable why it was not borne by all great dukes: it might be that the horde which was moſt prevalent at the time prevented or refuſed it.

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nity without election, or that later hiſtorians have arbitrarily employed it without ſufficient authority *. In the ruſſian bible it ſignifies a king †; yet the old authors uſe it likewiſe when they

* But this can only be determined by old records. However, the accurate appropriation of it to the above-mentioned Vaſſilli Ivanovitch ſeems to vouch for the veracity of Lomonoſof in delivering the tzar's title, that he does not give it arbitrarily or negligently, but as he found it in the annaliſts. — But, as the whole of the preſent inquiry more properly belongs to the departments of hiſtory and antiquities than to this place, ſo there is no need to dwell any longer upon it.

† Thus the derivative tzarſtvo, kingdom, which is even extended to the kingdoms of nature, the animal kingdom, the vegetable kingdom, &c. At preſent in the ruſſian tongue a king is called korol, and the derivative kingdom, korolevſtvo. — That it is only the Ruſſians, and not the other ſlavonian nations, that denote a ſovereign by the word tzar, we learn from the learned M. Anton. And this leads to the inquiry whence the word is taken. We can hardly imagine it to be formed by an abbreviation of the word cæſar, which indeed they pronounce, in common with the Germans, tſeſar. But we will juſt notice a ſuggeſtion that now offers. In the ruſſian hiſtories frequent mention is made of tartarian and ſiberian tzars and tzarevitches, i. e. ſons of tzars. Thus, among others, Ritchkof, in his hiſtory of Kazan, ſpeaks of the tzar of the golden horde, the tzar of the Krim, the tzar of Kazan, which bears an obvious ſignification. This title has not been careleſsly transferred into the ruſſian hiſtories and appropriated to

they ſpeak of the emperors of Greece *. The largeneſs of the territory, to which no kingdom is comparable, but which even conſiſts of ſeveral kingdoms, long ago obtained for it the name of an empire. Peter I. thought proper to aſſume the denomination of emperor, in the year 1721, at the inſtance of the chief of his ſubjects †; and the im-

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to its monarch, for they have always borne it ſince the conqueſt of that country, and, therefore, in the empreſs's title ſhe was called "tzarina of Kazan; tzarina of Siberia," &c. We may conſequently with great propriety ſuppoſe, that the ruſſian nation, finding theſe tzars at the head of the neighbouring tribes, borrowed the title from them, and adopted it in the ruſſian language, to which it is perfectly foreign. However, this is only ſurmiſe, it may have come into uſe by ſome other way.

* Therefore we are not to be ſurpriſed that the tranſlators at Moſco conſtantly tranſlate the word tzar by that of emperor. Yet the word keſar was adopted into the ruſſian tongue to ſignify a roman emperor, (probably from the greek bible, which came into Ruſſia with the chriſtian religion,) which was afterwards changed for tzeſar, and at laſt for imperator.

† When we find in ſome authors, that Peter I. adopted the title of emperor, which was given him by his ſubjects, it muſt be ſaid that they expreſs themſelves too indefinitely, and as if it were done by a general reſolution of the nation. The fact is, that ſome of the principal perſons (among whom are chiefly meant the public colleges and boards) propoſed it to him.

perial title has been borne ever ſince by the ſovereigns of Ruſſia. For whom, in the maſculine gender the word imperator * was adopted, but an empreſs is ſtyled imperatritza. At firſt ſome trifling difficulties were raiſed by two foreign courts about acknowledging this title; but they were ſoon removed †. All potentates agree in giving the imperial title to the ſovereign of Ruſſia.

The abridged title, uſual in ukaſes, ſentences, commands, petitions, &c. is, emperor and autocrator ‡, or, empreſs and autocatrix, of all Ruſſia,

* The emperor of Germany is likewiſe ſo called at court and in the public acts, but the common people denote him by Rymſki tzar, the roman tzar.

† The french court at firſt would not directly acknowledge the ſovereign of Ruſſia as emperor, but only as ruſſian emperor. This was certainly curious; the german emperor is ſtill emperor, and ſo the ruſſian.

‡ It is not poſſible, I think, to put this word into engliſh, but by a periphraſis. Self-ruler, or ſole-ruler, do not come up to it. Perhaps uncontrollable-ruler is neareſt the mark. — In the ruſſian it is: Samoderjetz Vſeroſſiiſkiyi, or, of an empreſs: Samoderjitza Vſeroſſiiſkaia. The addition, as properly an adjective, is, by the two above expreſſions "of all Ruſſia," or, "of all the Ruſſias," not exactly rendered: the engliſh language having no term for it. Every attempt to give it a more juſt or literal tranſlation, would have idiom, gender, or ſyntax, or grammar againſt it,

Ruſſia, or of all the Ruſſias. The term autocrator denotes the ſovereign and unlimited authority; the addition, of all Ruſſia, or of all the Ruſſias, relates to the union of all the formerly diſtinct principalities into a monarchy under one ſole ruler *.

The full title borne by the empreſs runs as follows: Empreſs and autocratrix of all the Ruſſias, of Moſco, Kief, Vladimir, Novgorod, tzarina of Kazan, tzarina of Aſtrakhan, tzarina of Siberia, tzarina of the Taurida Cherſoneſe, lady of Pſcove, and grand ducheſs of Smolenſk, princeſs of Eſthonia, Livonia, Karelia †, Tver,

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it, and at laſt would be of little conſequence. Samoderjetz is compounded of *ſam*, ſelf, and derjetz. If the latter be derived from *derju*, I hold, then ſamoderjetz is a ſelf-holder. And thus it is ſometimes tranſlated, e. g. in the ruſſian articles of war, for the uſe of ſuch foreigners as are in the ſervice.

* They who imagine, ſays M. Hupel, that the ſeveral parts of Ruſſia, now called by different names, viz. Great Ruſſia, Little Ruſſia, and White Ruſſia, to be here meant, have the authority of hiſtory againſt them. For, long before Little Ruſſia, for inſtance, ſubmitted to the ruſſian monarchs, they already bore the title of Samoderjetz of all the Ruſſias.

† By Karelia is meant the preſent government of Vyborg, which is often called Finland.

Yugoria *, Permia, Viætka, Bolgaria, and other countries: lady and grand ducheſs of Novgorod of the lower country †, of Tſchernigof, Riæſan, Polotſk, Roſtof, Yaroſlavl, Bielozero, Udoria ‡, Obdoria §, Kondia ||, Vitepſk, Mſtiſlavl, commandreſs of the whole northern region, and lady of the country of Iveria ♪; of the kartalinian

* This is a part of the government of Archangel, namely the diſtrict of Puſtozero, and about the mouth of the Petſhora. Yugoria is an obſolete country-appellative, of which ſeveral appear in the imperial title, preſerved from antient times: they generally denote only ſmall tracts of country.

† This means Niſhnei-Novgorod.

‡ Likewiſe an obſolete name, formerly borne by the diſtrict about the river Meſen, eſpecially at its entrance.

§ By this obſolete name, which took its origin from the river Oby, is meant the diſtrict of Bereſof, in the government of Tobolſk. Tzar Vaſſilli Ivanovitch was the firſt that put Obdoria in his title.

|| It denotes the region of the river Konda, which flows into the Irtiſh.

♪ About this country very little information is to be had. Perhaps we are to look for it in the diſtrict of the Valdai, where the old famous iverian monaſtery ſtood. However the reader may not be diſpleaſed to ſee three ſeveral anſwers to letters of inquiry on this ſubject. The firſt (which alſo coincides with the opinion of a ſenator who gave it to Mr. Hupel) runs thus: "By the Iveria from which the late empreſs "ſtyled herſelf lady of the country of Iveria, or more pro-

"perly

nian and gruſinian tzars, and of the kabardinian country, of the Tſcherkaſſian and mountain-

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" perly according to the ruſſian, the iverian country (1), is " undoubtedly meant the antient Iberia. But it appears " that at preſent no country is any longer called Iberia, " nor any nation the iberian. Buſching, who always pro- " ceeds warily in his accounts, ſays Georgia conſiſts of the " antient countries Iberia and Colchis. — The diviſion of " the iberian monarchy into three chief parts ſtill conti- " nues; theſe are, Imeretia, Kargvelia, (with the Ruſſians " Kartalinia,) and Kachetia. — But generally by ſuch ad- " jectives we are not always to underſtand a particular, and " ſtill leſs a whole country, as we ſee, for inſtance, in Kon- " diiſkii. There are indeed two voloſts (2), which are, or " were, called the great and the little Konda: but long " ere theſe came under the ruſſian ſovereignty, Kondiiſkii " or Kondinſkii was a part of the tzarian title, and conſe- " quently meant no more than that the tzarian territory ex- " tended to the river Konda, or to thoſe two voloſts. Thus " count Romanzof bears the ſurname Zadunaiſkii, though " no country is call Zadunaia." On this mode of deduction a perſon of diſtinction wrote in his letter the following remarks: " The foregoing opinion would have ſome " probability, if it were previouſly ſhewn that the antient " Colchis, or the three georgian or gruſinian provinces on " mount Caucaſus, formerly compoſed a monarchy under " the name of Iberia. At leaſt this ſtyle in the tzarian " title was not adopted earlier than the time when the

(1) Iverſkiya ſemli. (2) Diſtricts.

tain-princes, and of others, hereditary lady and ſovereign.

In the letter of grace, which the late empreſs wrote to the nobility collectively, ſhe adds the following declaration after her title: "It is "known to all people, that this title of our ſole "dominion is no imaginary empire, or not in "ſubjection to us, nor containing foreign prin- "cipalities, provinces, towns, and countries, but "marks our wide-extended and numerous poſ- "ſeſſions by the ſhorteſt terms *."

It is farther to be remarked, that in former ukaſes and manifeſtos we always find: "By "the grace of God, we Catharine the ſecond,"

"princes of theſe countries came into ſome connexion with "Ruſſia, which was not, and then a very inſignificant one, "till the reign of Ivan Vaſſillievitch II. whereas it is cer- "tain that the ſaid three provinces at that time bore the ſame "appellation they do at preſent." Laſtly, a third writes: "There is ſtill an Iberia, through which the river Hippus "flows, coming from the caucaſean mountains: but whe- "ther this be the Iberia in the imperial title, I conceive to "want farther examination."

* There are really many countries and provinces ſubject to the ruſſian ſceptre which are not named in the imperial title; for inſtance, the country of the Kirghiſes, and the lately naturalized Tſhuktſhi; not to mention the iſlands in the Eaſtern ocean, which have never belonged to Siberia.

&c.:

&c.: but in the two before-mentioned gracious epiſtles it is: "By the bountiful grace of God, "we Catharine the ſecond, &c." Laſtly, majeſty in the ruſſian is expreſſed by velitcheſtvo, which indeed implies majeſty, but is originally a deſignation of greatneſs, being apparently derived from veliki, great.

SECTION III.

The power, authority, and prerogatives of the Sovereign.

THESE objects are not only of the greateſt importance, but form perhaps the moſt difficult problems of the ruſſian conſtitution *; and therefore demand all poſſible care in the diſcrimination.

It is notorious, and the empreſs declares it in her inſtructions for the code-commiſſioners,

* Even miniſters themſelves, on being interrogated on this ſubject, have confeſſed that it would coſt them ſome trouble to deliver a direct and ſatisfactory ſolution of them. This is mentioned merely leſt the reader ſhould be afraid of being wearied with a long and tedious diſquiſition, or expect a complete ſatisfactory analyſis of a matter, on which he muſt content himſelf only with fragments. And as we know of no book that could here ſerve as a guide, it is hoped he will pardon any miſtake he may detect.

ſect. ix. and x. that the monarch of Ruſſia is unlimited, or has an unlimited authority. But we are not hence to infer, that the people at large, and its ſeveral claſſes have not certain rights either derived from immemorial cuſtom or gradually introduced *.

From the ruſſian hiſtorians, particularly thoſe who diſcover a ſcrutinizing view, it appears that this unlimited authority has ever belonged to the ſovereigns of Ruſſia, and that the empire has always proſpered with it; whereas it has regularly felt a conſiderable detriment as often as ſome bold and enterpriſing party has preſumed to bring it within bounds. According to Tatiſchtſhef it was Ruric that aſſumed unlimited authority, and that it continued with his ſucceſſors till Mſtiſlaf the great; at which period the ſeparate princes began to grow ſo powerful, and the clergy exacted ſuch great veneration, that the welfare of the empire was evidently declining. But Ivan the great regained the former authority and power, and Ivan the Terrible, or

* Several foreigners, and particularly travellers, from haſte and ignorance have omitted to take theſe into their accounts; and thus have given riſe to many wrong notions concerning the government of this country: neither have ſome of them been ſparing of the terms deſpotiſm and ſlavery, which are by no means applicable to it.

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the ſecond, confirmed it, which remained to the ſovereigns that followed till the time of the falſe Demetriuſes; when ſome boyars found opportunity to uſurp a power that brought great diſtreſs on the empire. Tzar Alexei Michailovitch, with all his abilities, found it impoſſible to recover it entirely; prevented at firſt by the ambition of Nikon, and after the depoſition of that patriarch, by a lingering diſeaſe, that at laſt put an end to his life. It was reſerved for Peter the great to retrieve the long loſt unlimited authority *. And, though upon the demiſe of Peter II. the privy council ſtretched its power ſo far as to propoſe to the empreſs Anna, previouſly to her acceſſion, the ſubſcription to a ſet of articles by which her authority was circumſcribed †, yet the nobility, on being informed of the plan, defeated it immediately by preſenting

* It might nearly be affirmed that he enlarged it; as, among other ways, inſtead of the lordly domineering patriarch, idolized by the people, he inſtituted a ſpiritual college devoted to himſelf, the ſynod; and thus acquired a ſpiritual in addition to his temporal power.

† It is ſaid, that the generalfeldmarechal count Munich, as ſoon as he heard of the deſign of the council, immediately diſpatched a courier, by a particular road, to Mitau, begging her to ſubſcribe to the whole of it without heſitation, and afterwards to act as ſhe pleaſed.

a petition, wherein they beſought her to reject the propoſal as highly indecent, and to uſe the fulneſs of power that was her due, to the benefit and glory of herſelf and the empire *. This ſhe did: and it has remained with the crown unaltered to the preſent day.

This unlimited power, as the empreſs herſelf declares in her Inſtruction, ſect. xiii. and xix. by no means conſiſts in the privation of the natural liberty of the ſubjects, but in this, that the inferior powers are ſubordinate to the ſovereign and dependent upon him. Accordingly, in the ruſſian empire there is nothing that can oppoſe itſelf to the emiſſion of an imperial decree: there being neither diet, nor national aſſembly, nor eſtates of the empire, nor parliament, nor college, or any thing of a like nature, authoriſed in the name of the people, or merely of themſelves, to judge of the conduct of the ſovereign, or his prime miniſter, acting under his orders, and in anywiſe to try his ukaſes before they are enforced, or in any manner to take part in the legiſlative and other prerogatives of majeſty. It

* Tatiſchtſchef mentions that at firſt upwards of 70 perſons, and then 360 others, of the principal nobility, preſented this petition. — They were apprehenſive that a power divided between the throne and a council or ſenate, might have a tendency to bring back the former confuſions.

is

is true, the directing ſenate, as the ſupreme court of the empire, is inveſted with a peculiar authority; yet it is not the repreſentative * of the people, but ſupreme court of judicature †, and executor of the decrees ſent to it. No more can a council or cabinet control the will of the ſovereign; ſince either, as well as the ſenate, exiſts only through him, and is dependent upon him. The proceeding of the council at the acceſſion of the empreſs Anna, about ſetting limits to the imperial power, and appropriating a part of it to itſelf, with the ſenate, which had approved of the whole plan, was nothing but uſurpation, and therefore is not to the purpoſe. Peter the firſt, gave expreſs permiſſion, as well to the ſenate as to other colleges of the empire, on receiving an ukaſe apparently detrimental; that is, if they conceived the ſubject of it had not been properly repreſented to the monarch, to defer the enforcement of it, and to ſhew their

* Except perhaps in caſes, where it is held proper to return thanks for marks of favour beſtowed upon the empire, or to carry up a general felicitation. Though this ſeems to be more in their own corporate than in any ſort of repreſentative capacity.

† It is underſtood of itſelf that the empreſs can reform its judgments of her own accord, or in her cabinet, though it is not often done.

objections

objections in a remonſtrance *; at the ſame time adding, that if that ukaſe were repeated they ſhould conform to it without farther delay. The late empreſs renewed this permiſſion, by expreſsly declaring in her inſtruction to the commiſſioners for framing a code of laws, ſect. xxiv. "The courts of juſtice are carefully to examine "the laws they receive from the monarch, and "have the right to make repreſentations, in "caſe they find any thing in them that runs "counter to the law-book." And, in ſect. xxvii. it is added: that "they may and ſhould make "ſuch repreſentations †." Agreeably to this, it is

* This alone is ſufficient to refute the opinion that immenoi ukaſes, i. e. ukaſes ſigned by the empreſs's own hand, are ſo irreverſible that even no remonſtrance can be brought againſt them. In caſes of great emergency even private individuals have preſented them. As an inſtance we may mention the princeſs Kantemir, who received a determination of the cabinet in regard to the negligence of her ſpouſe, which granted her but little, and aſſigned almoſt all to the other heirs. She delivered a petition to the empreſs Anna, in which ſhe ſaid, ſhe appealed from a monarch not ſufficiently informed of the matter, to one better acquainted with it. The empreſs, ſomewhat nettled, ordered a commiſſion to re-examine the caſe; and the princeſs gained her ſuit.

† It needs not to be remarked, that ſuch remonſtrances can never degenerate into oppoſition, but that a reiterated decree

is ſaid, in the ordinance for the adminiſtration of the government, ſect. ci. "On important and "extraordinary occaſions, or on the receipt of "new and general laws, the imperial viceroy "may call together the penal, civil, and crown "courts, to take the matter into their common "conſideration conjointly with the perſons in "the adminiſtration of that government. If "among the new general laws, a law is found "any way improper, it is allowable for the ſaid "aſſembly to make a unanimous repreſentation "to the ſenate upon it*. But if the ordinance "be confirmed in a ſuperior place, it behoves "them to pay entire obedience to it without "contradiction." Of the influence formerly acquired by the boyars and the heads of the clergy, notice has already been taken: when-

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decree muſt be carried into effect. We may obſerve, by the way, that here a right is expreſsly granted to the courts of judicature: therefore the reader not ſufficiently acquainted with the true ſtate of the caſe, will ceaſe to wonder at mention being made of certain rights of the people.

* A wiſe and ſalutary regulation: for an imperial college may miſtake in the framing of a decree, or may improperly repreſent the ſtate of the caſe, through negligence or deſign. In ſuch a large empire it might happen that a decree was iſſued contrary to the intention of the ſovereign, a ukaſe be brought out by ſtealth, or wrongly interpreted, &c.

ever

ever it exceeded the bounds of a ſubordinate power, it was pure uſurpation; only the monarch, who elected them at his pleaſure, was at liberty to uſe their advice, and when he ſaw good to delegate to them a part of his authority, as is ſometimes done to a college, a miniſter *, &c. Therefore the empreſs ſays, in her Inſtruction, ſect. xx. that the ſovereign alone communicates power, and this flows through the courts of juſtice.

In virtue of his unlimited power, the ſovereign, without being ſubject to any account or control whatever †, can give new laws whenever he thinks proper, or alter thoſe in being according to the exigences of the empire; can make war and peace ‡, raiſe taxes, levy recruits, grant privileges and exemptions, confer titles and dignities §, have or aboliſh monopolies, ſettle im-

* Thus the empreſs Anna granted to count Munich, particularly when he was at a diſtance from the army, an extenſive authority till then not cuſtomary, which gave great umbrage to ſeveral generals and ſtaff-officers, and of the exerciſe of which all ſorts of anecdotes are told.

† Accordingly the empreſs in her Inſtruction, &c. confines the legiſlation entirely to him.

‡ It is cuſtomary at preſent to ſtate the motives in the proclamation.

§ Such as creating princes, counts, barons; in ſhort, raiſing perſons to the nobleſſe.

perial dues *, or abrogate them, grant away or ſell domains at pleaſure †, or increaſe them by purchaſe, conqueſt, negotiation ‡, &c.

The moſt unlimited ruler, even the greateſt deſpot, if not miſled by flatterers or the influence of unruly paſſions, will feel a counterpoiſe within his breaſt reſtraining him from manifeſt oppreſſions, violences, and other noxious meaſures §: yet it is notorious that in deſpotic governments, the honour, the property, and the life of the

* So the late empreſs relinquiſhed the imperialia exacted of the mine-works by Peter the great.

† Thus in the whole courſe of the preſent century all the ruſſian emperors and empreſſes have made grants of numberleſs crown-eſtates.

‡ Examples of the actual and unmoleſted exerciſe of all theſe prerogatives, appear throughout the ruſſian hiſtory, eſpecially the modern.

§ To which may be added, his own intereſt, which muſt be intimately connected with that of the country; the internal ſenſe or conſcience; a laudable ambition and the deſire of leaving a good name behind him to poſterity; an honeſt pleaſure in the approbation of the people; the dread of diſcontents or loud murmurs, invective ſpeeches among the ſubjects, or even rebellions, &c. — As an excellent illuſtration of this, we may refer to the hint in the Inſtruction, &c. ſect. xcii. concerning the ſpirit by which the civil government ought to be actuated.

ſubject

ſubject are dependent on the humour of the prince. Quite different is the caſe in the ruſſian empire: its various tribes and claſſes have their peculiar rights, may enjoy them undiſturbed, and appeal to them when occaſion requires; reputation, property, and life, except in criminal caſes, are inviolable, which the empreſs, in her Inſtruction, ſect. cxiv. expreſsly eſtabliſhes as a fundamental principle of the ruſſian form of government; no man is condemned unheard, but every one, even a traitor or a rebel, enjoys the benefit of defence; the laws are enforced, and all cauſes muſt be determined by them. Of equal validity are cuſtoms and uſages *; all contracts are fulfilled with the moſt punctilious exactitude †; private perſons defend their property, even

* Therefore the empreſs ſays in her Inſtruction, ſect. lix. "Laws are ordinances of the legiſlator. But cuſtoms and "uſages are traditions of the whole nation."

† It muſt however be remarked, that this is particularly applicable to the late empreſs. In the reign of Elizabeth, they were ſometimes broken; probably without her knowledge. Thus, for example, a man had to-day a grant of an eſtate belonging to the crown, for 12 years, by way of leaſe; but it would be taken from him in one year afterwards, without compenſation, and given away to another. But at preſent ſuch things are unheard of. Even when a perſon has the grant of an eſtate in fee, if there be a leaſe upon it, the

even againſt claims on the part of the crown, in courſe of law according to the ſtatutes *; when a man has ſuffered a ſuppoſed injury, he may make a repreſentation and expect relief †, &c.

In all countries, with the beſt conſtitution, an abuſe of power will ſometimes happen, when the ruler, or a violent miniſter, or a ſelfiſh and rapacious governor, or a venal judge, invades the rights of a province, of a town, of a particular claſs of people, or of private perſons. The ſame may have formerly happened likewiſe in

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the terms of it are faithfully obſerved; on the other hand, of all contractors the exact fulfilment of their covenant is required, even when they can prove that they ſuffer damage by it; it being reaſonably ſuppoſed, that the contractor, when he made the contract, had duly weighed the advantages and the diſadvantages: from the former he gives nothing back, therefore it is but equitable that he ſhould bear the latter.

* When a nobleman, whoſe eſtate borders on one belonging to the crown, has a diſpute concerning the bounds, it is decided by the ordinary judges, according to the laws in being. The crown has never required a partial reſpect, and it has no preference in legal deciſions: it might happen formerly that a governor or a judge had hopes of getting a reward for ſuch obliquity; but it never happens now.

† Inſtances are not wanting of ample compenſation being made by the ſucceſſor for acts of injuſtice committed in the former reign.

Ruſſia.

Ruſſia *. But thence to draw a general or unfavourable concluſion, would be to judge very inconſiderately: according to law, or properly according to the conſtitution, ſuch diſorders, and eſpecially acts of violence, cannot happen.

In many countries the people have received their privileges by charter from their princes †. So in Ruſſia are ſeveral inſtances of a like nature. In regard to the unlimited power of the ſovereign, which always deſcends entire to the ſucceſſor, the laſting validity of them ſeems to require ſome notice. When the ſovereign grants a charter, it ſhould appear as if the ſucceſſor was limited by it; and in general that privileges conferred on the ſubjects were not perfectly compatible with unlimited power. But, by this mode of inference no ſovereign ſtate could enter into treaties of peace or of commerce with others; as in them likewiſe the ſucceſſor is bound to

* During the reign of the empreſs Elizabeth, people, without being brought to a hearing, were ſent off, and diſappeared. It is thought that in every year of her reign a thouſand perſons were the ſad victims of this practice. She reigned 20 years.

† Whether they be granted freely and by peculiar agreement, or extorted from the prince, makes not much difference, at leaſt in their conſequences.

fulfil

fulfil the conditions *. Herein, however, the greatneſs of the ſovereign is diſplayed in its full ſplendor, inaſmuch as he can grant privileges of permanent validity; he would himſelf limit his power, were he to declare thoſe granted by his predeceſſors null and void; at the ſame time by ſo doing, he would deſtroy all ſecurity, the main pillar of the government. For this important reaſon the ſovereigns of Ruſſia have preſerved their unlimited power unimpaired, while they maintained and occaſionally enlarged not only the written privileges, but alſo thoſe reſting on antient uſage and tacit approbation alone. In proof of this, we may bring the Kozaks, the Baſhkirs, &c. reſpecting their excluſive right of property in the countries they inhabited; the provinces of Livonia and Eſthonia, which, ſince they fell to Ruſſia, in lieu of furniſhing recruit, pay a certain fine; the whole body of nobility, whoſe antient rights have of late received a conſiderable augmentation; the proprietors of mines, to whom Peter I. in their charter granted a complete allodial right, with the ſpecial aſſurance that it ſhould be held ſacred by all his ſucceſſors in the empire, which the late empreſs has farther

* That he ſometimes finds a pretext for departing from an alliance concluded in the former reign, we are taught by hiſtory both antient and modern.

increaſed by remitting the imperial dues; with many more inſtances of a ſimilar kind. — An imperial law in the general regulation proceeding from that emperor, for that reaſon makes it the duty of every tribunal and college, in framing their judgments, always to have regard to exiſting privileges, and to decide accordingly: and this happens perpetually; the ſenate has frequently interpoſed, when patentees have been willing to wave their privilege, by plainly declaring its diſapprobation of ſuch a proceeding, and inſiſting on its being maintained *. But how, if reaſons of ſtate, and the welfare of the empire †, demand an alteration or a total abrogation of the privilege? Indeed it appears that no ſovereign could take that upon him without

* Even ſlight diſadvantages have been diſregarded when juſtified by a privilege. Thus, in one of the provinces of the Baltic, a printing-office had a patent for the ſale of certain church and ſchool books. Though they were printed and diſpoſed of by thouſands, yet the patentee greatly enhanced their price. A bookſeller got permiſſion of him to print them, for the benefit of the poor boors, cheaper by about one half. But the ſenate would not allow of it, protected the printing-office in the exerciſe of its privilege; and declared that, in virtue of it, the office had a right to ſell its books at a dearer rate, than another might engage to do.

† Juſtly conſidered as the paramount law.

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the conſent or a ſufficient indemnification of the privileged party, who ought to enjoy at leaſt the right of a contractor. Privileges, however, are not to be conſidered merely as contracts, but as laws, the place of which they undoubtedly ſupply. Theſe, when they degenerate and become hurtful, require a remedy, that, like pernicious abuſes, they may not be perpetuated. The ſovereign may find himſelf obliged to retrench or entirely to aboliſh a privilege granted by himſelf or his predeceſſors, on its appearing to be hurtful. This may be illuſtrated by ſome inſtances. The patriarchal dignity was for a long period of time interwoven with the political and eccleſiaſtical conſtitution of the empire; it had been ſanctioned and confirmed by ſeveral monarchs, and may therefore be conſidered as a privilege granted to the nation, and eſpecially to the clergy: but, on its becoming dangerous and pernicious, it was aboliſhed by Peter the great. — The Ukraine had a privilege, in virtue whereof they choſe their own hetman. Hence frequently aroſe diſſenſions, rebellion, and inteſtine war. The monarch of Ruſſia ſaw himſelf neceſſitated to interpoſe in the election, and thus to ſet bounds to that privileged liberty. But, the hetman, as chieftain of a rude and turbulent people, joining ſometimes with the enemies of

the empire, and thus growing dangerous to it, it was found neceſſary to prevent the election entirely, and to leave the place for a length of time unoccupied; till at laſt, from the ſeveral complaints that were made againſt their former hetman, and for other weighty reaſons, the empreſs Catharine II. aboliſhed it quite. — So likewiſe the Zaporogians had a ſtated privilege of right over their territory and conſtitution, ariſing from antient cuſtom and tacit convention: in which, as long as it was poſſible, they were protected. Their licentious manners and turbulent ſpirit loudly called for reſtraint. They exclaimed againſt this ſalutary meaſure as an act of violence, and proceeded from one degree of inſolence to another: till at length no other alternative was left for the ſafety of the empire than to aboliſh their conſtitution, together with their pretended privilege. — On the whole it is plain that the ruſſian ſovereigns have proceeded with great caution in the alterations that have been found neceſſary, not only in privileges, but even in uſurpations and preſcriptive uſages, when they have had but the leaſt ſemblance of juſtice on their ſide *; always expoſing their motives, and

* For inſtance in Livonia and Eſthonia; when, for reaſons of ſtate, the exportation of corn has been prohibited for

and even referring the choice between the adoption of a new or the adhering to an old regulation, to the parties concerned *. If the ſovereign were obliged to leave all things to proceed upon the old ſyſtem, he would not be able to effect any good; but the alteration of a privilege is frequently a real benefit, as, among other examples, the following will ſhew. According to the privilege granted to the miners by Peter the great, the private owners were obliged, as has been already mentioned, to pay certain tributes or tithes to the crown: but the late empreſs has

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for a time, as was done in the ſeven years war by the empreſs Elizabeth. The ſame may be ſaid likewiſe of new impoſts: for, in the two dukedoms abovementioned, when the haaks of land at the beginning of the preſent century were worth no more than from 500 to 1000 rubles, the taxes could not be ſo great as at preſent when the value is riſen to between 3000 and 5000 rubles, and at times ſtill higher. Livonians and Eſthonians, when the converſation in companies at Peterſburg has turned upon the produce of eſtates, and rich Ruſſians have talked of 4 or 5 per cent., have bragged of gaining 11 per cent. by theirs: which they may do — by methods at which humanity ſhudders.

* At the abolition of the Zaporogians it was left to their choice whether they would adopt a regular mode of life, or leave the empire. — The new political regulation was not forced upon the cities of Riga and Reval: it was left to the choice of the burghers; they found it more beneficial.

relinquiſhed theſe claims; and inſtead of that burden has granted them an encouragement. This was an alteration of the greateſt advantage. — The kozaks of Little Ruſſia were obliged by their privileged conſtitution, not only to furniſh troops, but to maintain them at their own expence, by arbitrary and heavy contributions, partially levied by their chiefs. This was altered by her late majeſty: the ſtated number of troops now receive their regular maintenance from the crown, agreeably to the army eſtabliſhment; and thoſe who ſtay at home pay, to their great advantage, a very moderate annual rate. — The entails on eſtates in Livonia and Eſthonia were found to give riſe to many grievances; they were accordingly cut off, to the great joy of both dukedoms, by the late empreſs, though they were founded on privileges. — In like manner the new mode of governing by viceroys the provinces is a real benefit, even to thoſe that were moſt proud of their chartered rights *.

* To omit for the preſent a great many very important advantages, we ſhall here only mention, that formerly in Livonia and Eſthonia ſeveral civil offices muſt be executed gratis. Now every officer has his regular ſalary; and many places furniſh a decent income to perſons who were a charge upon the public. Therefore theſe, as well as other provinces, thanked the empreſs for giving them the new inſtitution by deputies.

This

This naturally leads us to a ſubject which has never yet been unfolded in any ſatisfactory manner by the authors that have written on Ruſſia, namely, the fundamental laws of the empire. Some writers have, indeed, affirmed that ſuch laws do exiſt, while others will not allow it, or at leaſt expreſs their doubts upon the matter; probably becauſe they either have not duly conſidered the nature of political conſtitutions in general, or not properly examined into that of Ruſſia *. Certainly, if we were to aſk the Ruſſians, eſpecially the great multitude, concerning them, we ſhould ſoon have reaſon to doubt of their exiſtence, as it is not cuſtomary to make them the ſubject of converſation †;

* If they had conſidered that in the whole world there is no ſuch thing as a pure deſpotiſm, they would at leaſt have been led to ſuppoſe that there muſt be fundamental laws in Ruſſia, even though they were not to be pointed out, and ſtill leſs in writing, but were only traditional. — They ſeem to have been led by an imaginary notion of fundamental laws that will by no means ſuit with Ruſſia.

† Nor is this at all ſurpriſing: in many other countries, where the ſubjects have not the ſame opportunities of diſcourſing on the laws and ſtate affairs as we have in England, you will ſcarcely find even a literary man who can give you a good account of the laws, under the protection of which he lives; this knowledge is generally confined to the public functionaries.

though we frequently hear of laws of the empire and imperial laws *, which, however, in ſome caſes, may be regarded as component parts of them †. What then are we to underſtand

* Theſe two expreſſions are often uſed as ſynonimous, yet they ſeem ſometimes to admit of a diſtinction. Perhaps we might ſay that every ukaſe coming from the throne, unleſs it relate entirely to a private concern, is a law of the empire: but when it delivers a general rule (though only for ſome particular claſs, &c.) it is then to be ranked among the imperial laws, which are ſometimes called imperial regulations, and from their collective contents, the imperial conſtitution. To this conſequently belong even particular ukaſes, as there is not yet any complete code, though there are already many collections of laws. — The patent granted by her majeſty ſome years ſince to the nobility, which they received with gratitude as a beneficial privilege, is an imperial law. It aſcertains the pretenſions of the nobility, as the golden bull in Germany, and the magna charta in England, aſcertain certain rights and immunities. The two latter are fundamental laws of the countries to which they relate; why then ſhould not the firſt-mentioned bear the ſame title, or be regarded as a component part of the fundamental law, that aſcertains the pretenſions of the people? At leaſt it has an important influence in the conſtitution; and to the nobility, is in the place of a fundamental law. — In ſome reſpects the ſame may be ſaid of the new political regulation of the governments as a privilege.

† We learn from hiſtory, that the teutonic nations, almoſt to the time of Charlemagne, had no other laws than old

ſtand by fundamental laws? In many countries they are merely traditionary, and it would be requiring too much to expect that they ſhould be always written in formal characters and ſolemnly promulgated*. Neither are we to forget

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old eſtabliſhed maxims derived from father to ſon. No man will affirm that their conſtitutions were deſtitute of fundamental laws; for certainly to them belonged the democratic form of government, the limited power of their kings, the allodial freedom, and the great right of holding lands in fee-ſimple, &c. When theſe nations began to commit their traditional maxims to writing, then aroſe, among the Franks, for example, the ſalique law, and others, as acknowledged fundamental laws. The burgundian, ſaxon, and other laws, had exactly the ſame origin. But they were in being and valid long before they were reduced to writing.

* See Schlœtzer's hiſtorical inquiry, and Putter's diſp. de legum imperii fundamentalium et civilium differentia, which authors make contents and form abſolutely neceſſary to fundamental laws; and the latter ſays expreſsly that the people muſt make them, or concur in making them, or at leaſt voluntarily approve of them. Now, this requires a few words of remark. The ſolemn form and written text is to be found only in ſome countries: but neither of them are neceſſary properties, if traditionary maxims with many nations have long ſupplied and ſtill ſupply the place of fundamental laws. Juſt as little is it abſolutely neceſſary that the people ſhould make or concur in making them: for Minos, Solon, Lycurgus, and other famous legiſlators, framed not only civil but fundamental laws, which the people merely admitted; for conſent may be either verbal or tacit.

that

that in many countries they do not at all extend to each particular province, but that theſe may ſometimes have a ſort of conſtitution of their own. — In Ruſſia they can ſhew fundamental laws reduced to writing; but whether all be ſo or not requires a ſhort review of former tranſactions. It would be a difficult undertaking to aſcertain their origin throughout in ſucceſſion of time, but two of them at leaſt muſt be of equal date with the body politic. For, though the ruſſian hiſtory, as far as it is at preſent known, ſays nothing of any antient compact, either oral or written, between the ſovereign and the people, yet no man will eaſily be perſuaded, that the independent and free ruſſian tribes, when they choſe foreign princes, as they did Rurik and his brethren, to be their rulers, ſubmitted themſelves unconditionally, without any reſervation of life and property, to their arbitrary will; as may likewiſe be ſaid of the period, when, after the extinction of Rurik's race, the crown was conveyed to the elder Godunof*, and laſtly

* I ſay nothing here of Zuiſkoy, as on his acceſſion to the throne ſome of the moſt eminent of the boyars, as has been already mentioned, propoſed to his option ſome articles, by which they abrogated the old fundamental laws which defined the grand prerogatives of majeſty, and in their ſtead propoſed new ones with limitations: which innovation the people ſoon found to be prejudicial and entirely rejected.

to

to the houſe of Romanof: nor can it any more be conceived, that theſe princes would have taken upon them the burden of government, without knowing the nature and extent of the prerogatives annexed to it. Let us allow that at firſt no formal inſtrument was drawn up in writing for ſettling the mutual claims of ſovereign and ſubject, yet the then commonly received notions of the rights of each might ſerve as the ground-work of a conſtitution, and give us ſome inſight into that form of government which was built upon antient uſage. Thus we ſhould at leaſt admit two primitive fundamental laws, the one eſtabliſhing the claims of the ſovereign, the other thoſe of the people. In proceſs of time it is poſſible they might receive an addition by privileges, inveſtitures, caſualties, &c. or in various ways, by encroachments, poſture of affairs, agreement, &c. might ſuffer diminution *, of which hiſtory affords many examples. Such alterations or enlargements, as ſoon as their

* Leſt the reader ſhould at firſt be ſurpriſed at this, he muſt be reminded that in England the magna charta, and in the german empire the golden bull were recognized fundamental laws, not original and primitive laws. They contain, as privileges, claims, whereby on one hand they enlarge, and on the other contract the old ones. — It makes no difference in the uſe of them whether they proceed from the ſovereign alone, or from the co-operation of the people, or ſolely from the latter.

validity,

validity was recognized, became fundamental laws *, whereof ſome were conſequently of antient and others of much later origin †; and thus ſome of the ruſſian would accord with thoſe of other countries, while others, by reaſon of their peculiar conſtitution, might remarkably differ from them. — To the moſt modern principally belong the ordinances for the adminiſtration of the governments, as alſo the letters of grace directed to the nobles and to the towns; which have given a new and exceedingly important conſtitution to the whole empire, as well as to ſome of its diſtinguiſhed members or claſſes ‡. — All the preſent fundamental laws

* At leaſt an accurate ſtatement of thoſe already in being, whereby they received a new form, or were increaſed in number.

† If we admit the before-mentioned ordinance of Peter I. concerning the power of appointing a ſucceſſor, to be a fundamental law, we thereby allow it to be a new one.

‡ There ſurely needs no proof that theſe three grants or privileges are a part of the fundamental laws of the empire: it may ſuffice, that they have all the requiſites preſcribed by M. Schlœtzer, being, 1. drawn up in writing; 2. in ſolemn form; 3. of extremely important contents, as has already been ſhewn in regard to the nobles, and in regard to the conſtitution of the governments will be ſeen in a future part. Add to this, 4. that they were thankfully accepted and ratified by ſolemn deputations, which is of greater validity than the ſimple conſent or co-operation of the people.

of

of the empire may properly be reduced therefore to two principal claſſes, as they aſcertain either the authority and prerogatives of the ſovereign, or the claims of the ſubjects *. A ſubdiviſion into poſitive and negative would be ſuperfluous, becauſe what we ſhould allow to the monarch as poſitive would belong to the negatives of the people. But an accurate ſtatement of what re-

* Hence it is manifeſt that the idea of M. Schlœtzer, in his hiſtorical inquiry, is by no means ſatisfactory, that there are but two fundamental laws of the empire, both relating merely to the prerogatives of the ſovereign, namely, 1. his unlimited authority, and 2. the hereditary right of his poſterity to the ruſſian throne. He adopts them both from the charter of ſettlement which was drawn up and ſubſcribed by all the ranks on the extinction of the race of Rurik, on the 14th of April, 1613, at the election of Michaila Romanof: to which, however, he adds the preſumption, that the framer of that charter of ſettlement actually repreſented the whole nation. But this preſumption is needleſs, as that charter, by recognizing an unlimited authority and hereditary ſucceſſion, brought no new prerogative into action, but only acknowledged both as an uſage handed down from times immemorial, and generally acknowledged as ſalutary, (if indeed records of remote antiquity on that matter were not already in being,) repeated for the purpoſe of utterly annihilating the attempted limitation at the election of tzar Zuiſkoy. — In favour of the claims of the people, M. Schlœtzer finds nothing like a fundamental law of the empire.

lates to all the subjects in general, or to certain ranks in particular, might tend to illustrate many things; yet, without running into prolixity, it would be difficult to know always where to draw the line: besides, neither the limits nor the plan of this undertaking would allow of inserting abstracts of privileges, grants, edicts, patents, &c. The proof that there are fundamental laws of the empire in Russia, with a reference to them, will furnish the reader with sufficient occasion for his own farther reflections *. — Such are the following:

I. In regard to the sovereign:

1. The hereditary succession †: 1. That the throne is heritable in both sexes, were nothing reduced to writing on this head, either in the charter of settlement of the year 1613, or in any more antient record, yet this prerogative is one of the usages handed down from their ancestors, and recognized as valid by the people, which as a tradition admitted by the whole na-

* It is not my design to exhaust the subject by producing all the fundamental laws of the empire that are in being. Neither will it merit any very high degree of animadversion if some should here be reckoned among them on which others might perhaps refuse to bestow that title.

† That even Schlœtzer acknowledges it to be a fundamental law has been mentioned just above.

tion,

tion *, in the preſent caſe, has the force of a fundamental law of the empire. 2. The right to appoint the ſucceſſor, of which a ſufficient elucidation has been given before †.

2. The uncircumſcribed authority ‡ which comprehends all the great and excluſive prerogatives of majeſty, ſome of which have been already ſpecified, e. g. the ſole legiſlation, even in eccleſiaſtical matters, together with the office of chief magiſtrate, the full power to make war and peace, to aſcertain regalties, &c. To this may be added, that the ſovereign has the right to employ the revenues of the empire according as he thinks fit; to enforce all his reſolute commands with his military; to conſtitute imperial colleges, or to alter them again; to appropriate to himſelf all lands and grounds which have no

* Which never thought of calling this right of ſucceſſion into queſtion. — Indeed Schlœtzer is of opinion, in his hiſtorical inquiry, that the frequent repetition of an act does not beget a law; but uſage ſupplying the place of law may ariſe from it.

† It is not neceſſary to derive it from a later ordinance, and to call it, with Buſching, a fundamental law. But it follows from two acknowledged fundamental laws which aſcribe the hereditary ſucceſſion and the unlimited authority to the ſovereign.

‡ This likewiſe Schlœtzer declares to be a fundamental law of the empire.

deter-

determinate owner, and to diſpoſe of them as he pleaſes; to appoint, inſtitute, and employ certain free people immediately belonging to the crown, where he ſhall think proper, if no particular privileges, immunities, &c. expreſsly declare otherwiſe; to change the reſidence; to ſhare the government with another *, or to lay it down †; to travel out of the empire, and to appoint at will a regency for the interim, &c.

3. That the ſovereign is an imperial majeſty, and the dominion an empire. The ſolemn offer of this title by the ariſtocracy in the name of the whole empire, the acceptance of it in behalf of all the ſucceſſion, are reaſons for deeming this a fundamental law of the empire.

The queſtion, whether the rights of the ſovereign include a partition of the empire, by means whereof he may, for inſtance, if he have ſeveral heirs, aſſign to each of them his ſeparate portion, with all the regalties, may be conſidered in two points of view. His unlimited authority ſeems to decide for the affirmative, eſpecially as partitions have been made in antient times. On

* The ruſſian hiſtory affords examples of this, to which never any thing was objected.

†. Whether in ſuch a caſe he could appropriate and preſerve any particular prerogatives, and of what kind, would indeed be a problem in the civil law of Ruſſia.

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the other ſide there appear to be weighty reaſons againſt ſuch a ſciſſure, at leaſt to diſſuade from it, as, among others: becauſe the former partitions brought on a weakneſs and a ſenſible decline of the empire *; becauſe, from the time of tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch it has remained undivided; becauſe, as an hereditary empire, it gives the next ſucceſſor authentic claim to an unbroken ſovereignty; becauſe there is only one ruſſian empire; becauſe the very title of a ſelf or ſole ruler of all Ruſſia, or of all the Ruſſias, precludes every diſmemberment. To this may be added, that, by Tatiſchtſchef's account, tzar Ivan the great, after he had thrown off the tartarian yoke, and reſtored the monarchy, eſtabliſhed the indiviſibility of the empire by a law which he cauſed to be confirmed by a diet convened by him for that purpoſe. — The matter aſſumes another ſhape by important conqueſts, which ſeem to form an exception, becauſe then the arguments adduced neither oppoſe it nor have place †. — In like manner the ſovereign has

* It ſhould not, however, be forgotten, that at that time it was not by far of ſo vaſt extent as at preſent.

† In ſuch a caſe it could not properly be called a partition or diſmemberment. This could have happened, for example, if Holſtein had not been given up; a grand-ducal prince might have received it as a ſeparate dukedom, for it

has undoubtedly a right to assign to his heirs certain apanages within the empire though without regalties.

In all countries the ruler takes the throne under certain obligations; but not everywhere can a code be referred to on that subject, which, in all probability, is the case in Russia.

2. In regard to the subjects there are specific obligations and rights. The former arise either from the abstract idea of subjects and from the nature and end of government; they are, therefore, alike in all countries, such as respect towards the majesty, fealty and obedience, service, payment of legal taxes, &c. — or they proceed from the fundamental laws which ascertain the prerogatives of the crown.

The rights of the subjects are grounded either on the idea of subjects, or on the end and aim of a constitution, or on old derived customs, or on written fundamental laws, or privileges that stand in place of law, and the like. They concern either the empire at large, or particular tribes, ranks, and classes; and in such regards they include, security of person, of reputation,

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did not belong to the empire. The same holds good, likewise, of a conquered province, it can be restored or erected into a separate state.

and

and of property; juſtice not denied; legal protection againſt violence and oppreſſion; unmoleſted enjoyment of all lawfully obtained immunities, privileges, and rights; the right, on the extinction of the reigning family, if no ſucceſſor be appointed, to elect one, &c. — Accordingly, the nobility may juſtly demand the quiet enjoyment of all the privileges and immunities granted them by letters of grace*. — The burghers may appeal to the privileges granted to them in the regulations for townſhips. — The Don-kozaks, and other nations of that kind, may juſtly expect that no invaſion be made on their diſtricts and poſſeſſions, or any infringement of their rights, &c.

It having been before mentioned that it might be ſhewn from ſome examples borrowed from

* Among them may in ſome meaſure be reckoned not only ſome laws in the Uloſhenie, and ſeveral ſingle ukaſes, e. g. concerning the right to poſſeſs eſtates and vaſſals, particularly the letter of grace diſpenſed by the late empreſs to the nobility in the year 1785; likewiſe one ſomewhat prior, that of the 18th of February 1762, by which the emperor Peter III. abſolves the nobility from the obligation, formerly indiſpenſable, to enter into the military or civil ſervice, even againſt their will. As the rights in the laſt-mentioned letter of grace are expreſsly called in it a fundamental law of the empire unalterable for ever, then other the like letters of grace and privileges may properly be called fundamental laws of the empire.

other countries, that fundamental laws are ſuſceptible of a gradual enlargement or limitation, it would be needleſs to ſtart the queſtion, whether they ought in general to be regarded as eternal and unalterable? They have, perhaps, never been ſo in any known country; a thouſand accidents, favour, war, revolution, intellectual improvement, ſtupidity, and human depravity, the vrieſt trifles in nature may effect an alteration *.

In concluſion to this head it will be proper, for obtaining a more complete knowledge of the conſtitution, to take a retroſpect view of ſome of the ſubjects that have been chiefly noticed, and may ſeem to require a more particular account.

The legiſlative authority is the monarch alone; neither the whole nation as a body, nor ſingle members or claſſes of it, can claim any part therein. Indeed the late empreſs ſummoned a number of perſons, from the ſeveral provinces and orders of people, as commiſſioners for framing a code of laws; but not as though this ought to have been done by the conſtitution of the empire, but becauſe ſhe deſigned to give her ſubjects a complete law-book, ſo compoſed as to

* Accordingly we are not to imagine that the welfare of the ſtate entirely depends on theſe fundamental laws.

ſuit

ſuit all the provinces and the ſeveral orders of people according to their peculiar ſituation, and to procure the utmoſt poſſible perfection, as well as the beſt introduction to the precepts it ſhould contain. — Whenever the ſenate, a college, the magiſtracy of a province, or a governor, iſſue any ordinances or precepts, they muſt be conformable to the laws in being, and grounded upon them by name; after which it is reſerved to the ſovereign to examine and to alter them at will. — The executive authority is indeed committed to the regular courts, but always under the chief-inſpection of the monarch, in whoſe name they act, becauſe, as he is the ſole legiſlator, he is alſo the ſovereign judge. Beſides, the empreſs, not only in her Inſtruction for the law-commiſſion, ſect. 127, lays it down as a rule that "ſome judges ſhall be of the ſame rank with the "culprit, that is, his equals," but reduced to practice that beneficial principle, as far as was poſſible in the preſent ſtate of things, in her ordinances for the adminiſtration of the governments. — All commands, ordinances, ſentences, and juridical matters are, as was ſaid before, iſſued in the name or by the command of the imperial majeſty, which formerly was done on the bare authority of the imperial colleges, &c. but never by the middle or inferior courts.

Conſequently, there are now none but pure imperial commands; and the only difference is in the ſource by which they are publiſhed. One publiſhed by the ſenate, or any other high imperial college, is likewiſe called an ukaſe; but when it proceeds directly from the majeſty, it is an imennoï ukaſe, or a namely-command, that is ſigned by the monarch's own hand with his name.

The ſovereign is alſo the ſole diſpenſer of all ranks and dignities *: to the higher he himſelf appoints the perſons, and ſigns with his own hand the inſtrument or patent. Among theſe are, of the clergy, the prelates (archihierèys), namely, metropolitans, archbiſhops, and biſhops; of the military, all generals of the army to the colonels of regiments, and of the fleet, the admirals to the captains of ſhips; in the civil department, the ſenators, general-governors, governors, preſidents of the ſuperior colleges, &c. The inferior degrees are beſtowed in his name by the proper commiſſioners or boards, e. g. in the civil department by the ſenate, in the military by the college of war, in the navy by the admiralty, in the church by the ſynod, in the medical department by the college of

* Therefore every promotion conferred by a college is regarded as coming from the empreſs herſelf.

medicine,

medicine, &c. Other poſts, as in the provincial governments, are in the appointment of the general-governor of each, &c. All theſe likewiſe deliver the letters of induction with their own ſignatures; only the patents of ſtaff-officers, &c. muſt be ſigned by the monarch. To all theſe poſts *, moreover, a definite rank is annexed, uniformly according to the military ſtandard, a circumſtance almoſt peculiar to Ruſſia †. It is to be obſerved, that in the civil department ſome places are of a twofold ſpecies, that is, either titular or actual, for inſtance, titular privy-counſellor or actual privy-counſellor ‡, and the like. But actual ſervice is not always connected with either §.

Formerly

* Even the empty titles which are given as a reward for good behaviour or faithful ſervice.

† Peter I. who aſſigned to every poſt its ſtated rank, took the ſtandard from the army probably in the ſole deſign of ſhewing his people how important it was in his eyes, and at the ſame time to point out the path to honour. — To many of the offices at court he affixed a very moderate rank; but they were raiſed by his next female ſucceſſors.

‡ In Livonia and Eſthonia the half-french and half-german expreſſion *etatſrath* is common, which founds the more ſingular as it is heard neither in Germany nor in Ruſſia: the german word *ſtat* has been naturalized in the ruſſian language.

§ It is not however hence to be inferred as if titles were ſold, or diſtributed in lieu of pay: ſuch a traffic is unknown

Formerly there were ſeveral monopolies of the crown *, but the late empreſs, to the manifeſt advantage of her ſubjects, aboliſhed the greater part of them, reſerving only two, namely, ſalt and brandy †. The former, as a neceſſary of life, is cheaper in Ruſſia than in ſome other countries, and is every where ſold at the ſame price ‡; wherefore the crown, conſidering the

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in Ruſſia; neither patents of nobility, nor commiſſions for officers, &c. are to be had for money. But numbers of *raths*, *ſtaatſraths*, and the like, obtain the title of *actual*, merely becauſe a higher rank is annexed to it. Thus every livonian and eſthonian *landrath*, the old equeſtrian *landſtaat*, or magiſtracy of the knights-templars, being aboliſhed as unneceſſary, obtains the title of an actual *ſtaatſrath*, without being thereby inveſted with any office. — As in like manner in Germany many titles are diſpenſed to noblemen, profeſſors, phyſicians, &c.

* Namely, rhubarb, potaſhes, tobacco, tar, train-oil, caviar, china ware, and formerly likewiſe yufts, &c.

† Some writers ſpeak of four reſerved monopolies, adding to the two abovementioned, ſaltpetre and gunpowder. But ſeemingly without reaſon: for both theſe articles, in conſideration of a ſlight duty, may by any one be exported or imported, and ſold in the ſhops to any purchaſer. Beſides, in many parts they make their own gunpowder, and there are private manufactories of ſaltpetre for public ſale.

‡ At 35 kopeeks the pood. Except thoſe provinces of the Baltic and White-Ruſſia who have permiſſion to bring ſalt from abroad.

expence

expence attending it *, gains but little on that article. Brandy, being not ſo neceſſary, is far dearer †, of which more will be ſaid hereafter.

In regard to landed property in general, the following may ſuffice. It belongs either to the crown, or to private owners, and that again either to individuals, or in common to a whole tribe: but this requires a farther ſtatement. In Great Ruſſia, at preſent the landed property is either in the crown, or in the nobility, or in the townſhips, or in the odnodvortſi: but to the firſt-mentioned all that to which no private perſon can produce a valid title ‡. — In Little-Ruſſia

* Salt-pans are attended with great expence; which is not the caſe with rock-ſalt or at the ſalt-lakes, becauſe there nothing more is neceſſary than to cut the ſalt, or ſhovel it directly into the ſcales; but the long tranſport by land and water ſubjects the crown to conſiderable expences.

† People, therefore, who, from their climate or their employments, &c. would be inclined to indulge in ſtrong drinks, are obliged to content themſelves with much cheaper and more wholeſome liquors, as beer, quas, mead, berry-wine, kumiſs, &c. which they prepare themſelves. With all this, however, a prodigious quantity of brandy is conſumed.

‡ Accordingly the crown has at times appropriated to itſelf thoſe parcels of land about which contending parties could not be brought to agreement by a proper ſurveyor, and cauſed them to be marked out by black poſts.

the landed property belongs either to the crown, or to the nobles ſettled there, or to the townſhips, or to the Kozaks. The laſt conſidered themſelves formerly as the ſole legal poſſeſſors. To the crown belong all theſe eſtates which formerly were allotted to the hetman and the chiefs of the people, in lieu of ſtipends; as likewiſe what has ſince come to it by purchaſe. The nobility of Great-Ruſſia have bought eſtates there *, and received many others as preſents from the crown. — In the country of the Don-kozaks, though they are originally brethren of the Ruſſians of Great and Little-Ruſſia, all belongs to the nation of the Kozaks: neither the crown nor any nobleman can appropriate to themſelves any thing there †. Many of the ſteppes are not allotted as property to any ſtanitza

* While the Ukraine was under the poliſh dominion, the poliſh nobility acquired eſtates there either by purchaſe, or perhaps alſo by ſeizure and uſurpation, at which the Kozaks at that time loudly complained, and frequently riſing up in arms drove them out. But on the ſubjection of the country to Ruſſia, it was expreſsly ſtated at the confirmation of the privileges, that the ruſſian nobility may poſſeſs landed eſtates there.

† That the crown may cut canals there in caſes of neceſſity againſt an enemy, and conſtruct places of defence, is naturally to be underſtood, it being for the benefit of the country at large.

(village)

(village) or private perſon: yet the crown has never appropriated to itſelf any part of them; but each Kozak occupies as much as he chooſes, and then leaves it again to lie waſte. — The caſe is much the ſame with the Ural-kozaks; but there the crown has always exerciſed the right of conſtructing forts at pleaſure, and to keep garriſons in them, to the uſes whereof however certain pieces of ground that lie contiguous are allotted. So probably it might appropriate and let out the very productive fiſhery on the river Ural: at leaſt perſons well verſed in theſe matters affirm that this right is inherent in it; though the Kozaks would look with an evil eye at ſuch a ſtep. — It is otherwiſe in the country of the Baſchkirs, towards the mountain Uraltau, or the Ural in its ſtricteſt ſenſe. The crown is there the proprietor of large mine-works and extenſive tracts of foreſt *; but all the reſt of the land the Baſchkirs have always appropriated to themſelves as their excluſive heritage; yet in ſuch manner, as not appertaining to the whole nation; but that each main-ſtem, and each race of them, is

* Perhaps by voluntary ceſſion, or ſimply as royalties from the time of the conqueſt of the country. — It is affirmed by ſome that almoſt all the land in Siberia belongs to the crown; which we muſt leave undecided, but it ſeems highly improbable.

always

always the complete excluſive owner of one diſtrict. Accordingly, if they ſell a piece of foreſt to a mine-maſter, their cuſtom is to reſerve to themſelves, as a teſtimony of their manorial right, the game, the wild-growing hops, and the bee-hives therein. They likewiſe adopt coloniſts among them *, to whom they readily give a right to build houſes and to occupy pieces of land at will, for which they take a trifling rent. The like method is purſued by the Meſtſcherækes and Tartars, who freely let out to any menial ſervants who come and ſettle among them, wood, paſture, and arable land, as much as they have occaſion for, at a yearly ground-rent of 25 kopeeks †. Only they will not that ruſſian villages ſhould be arbitrarily conſtructed among or near them ‡; probably not alone on account of their freehold-right, but likewiſe for fear of a gradual reſtriction, and what may eaſily follow, a total ejection §.

Another

* That is, of their own accord, at the requeſt of the coloniſts; they are not obliged to it.

† Pallas's travels, vol. ii. p. 51, alſo p. 30 & ſq.

‡ Id. ib. p. 33.

§ In ſome of the former reigns the queſtion has been agitated at the court of St. Peterſburg, whether lands ſhould be allotted to the ruſſian nobility among people aſſerting the ſame

Another of the prerogatives that adhere to the throne is, that the ſovereign can appoint a regency during the minority of his ſucceſſor, and fix the period of his arriving at majority. But if he neglect to do ſo during his lifetime, then the queſtion ariſes, who ſhall provide for the guardianſhip and education of the ſucceſſor during his minority, and declare the time of his being of age? As there is no expreſs law on this head, nobody is at preſent uncontrovertibly thus qualified, and the queſtion cannot be anſwered. It ſeems moſt natural that the next relation, without regard to ſex, ſhould undertake that matter as is done in other monarchies *; but, to paſs over many other difficulties that might hence ariſe, or for want of legal authority, it is even poſſible that there may be no ſuch relation of

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ſame right of property. Sagacious miniſters have always been againſt it: partly becauſe the nobility, ſoon increaſing their numbers, might attempt to put reſtraints on the liberty of the inhabitants; partly becauſe ſuch proceedings might excite great diſcontents, ſad murmurs, and other ill conſequences, eſpecially as ſuch nations are extremely jealous of their rights, real or imaginary, as experience has often ſhewn.

* An inſtance of this was ſeen in France during the minority of Louis XV.

age.

age *. Then it ſeems to fall either to the council, or to the directing ſenate, or to the high imperial colleges collectively †; but to all theſe a legal authority is wanting ‡. Beſides, the council is only the privy-council of the ſovereign; the ſenate has a co-ordinate college, namely, the ſynod; the reſt of the imperial colleges are ſubordinate to the ſenate, and cannot exerciſe an equal authority with it. Were there any eſtates of the country having voices, or inveſted with authority, they would ſhew their influence herein: but the ruſſian form of government knows nothing of ſuch. — Perhaps it might have been the intention of Catharine II. that the new code of laws ſhould have provided for meeting ſuch difficulties, by determining what perſons in the ſaid caſes ſhould be the ſubſtitutes or

* Or if even there were ſeveral ſuch relations making equal claim, who ſhould decide between them?

† Particular families, however great their conſideration, could not pretend to any right, as in Ruſſia there is only one nobility, of which every family may riſe by merit and good fortune: properly none have a precedence before others.

‡ It was for this reaſon that the empreſs Anna left a teſtamentary direction who ſhould conduct the government and have the care of educating the infant ſucceſſor.

repreſent-

repreſentatives of the nation *. With regard to the power of doing this, it is generally allowed that the legiſlative authority is competent to it; it follows then of conſequence, that the monarch who exerciſes the legiſlative authority in his dominion, can give fundamental laws.

SECTION IV.

The Form of Government.

WHAT is properly the form of government in Ruſſia, and what the fitteſt for the empire, may be beſt aſcertained by the perſon who holds the ſovereignty. On this ſubject the empreſs Catharine II. gives us the following information †.

" The ſovereign (of the ruſſian empire) is " abſolute: for no other than an authority con- " centrated in his perſon alone can adequately " operate through the extenſiveneſs of ſo large " an empire.

" An extenſive empire preſuppoſes an un- " limited power in the perſon who governs it.

* If, indeed, as Mr. Schlœtzer obſerves, there can be ſaid to be a nation where the government is abſolute. Hiſtor. unterſuchung.

† Inſtruction to the commiſſion for framing a code of laws, chap. ii. ſect. 9—16.

The

" The celerity of deciſion in matters that are " brought from diſtant places muſt compenſate " the tardineſs that ariſes from that remoteneſs.

" Any other form of government would not " only be prejudicial to Ruſſia, but even at " length be the cauſe of its total ruin.

" Another reaſon is, becauſe it is better to " obey the laws under one ruler, than to con- " form to the will of many.

" But what is the aim of an abſolute govern- " ment? Not to deprive mankind of their natu- " ral liberty, but to direct their actions to the " maintenance of the higheſt proſperity.

" Conſequently, a form of government which " is more than others conſtituted to that end, " and at the ſame time contracts the natural " liberty leſs than others, is that which beſt " coincides with the aims attributed to rational " creatures, and is moſt adapted to the object " they have ever had in view in the inſtitution of " civil ſocieties.

" The object and end of unlimited govern- " ments is the glory of the citizen, of the ſtate, " and of the ſovereign.

" Among a people who live under a mo- " narchical government, from this glory flows " the ſpirit of liberty, which in ſuch ſtates burſts

" forth

"forth in such great actions as are able, in the "very same proportion, to promote the happi- "ness of the subjects as liberty itself."

Accordingly, the form of government is unlimited monarchy. However, the free-born russian subjects are always treated as such. The empress never shut herself up in her palace like an eastern despot; her subjects might boldly approach her, not in the degrading manner of wretched slaves, but in the consciousness that they were not debarred the rights of man. — It is true, that to present petitions directly to the sovereign is forbidden by repeated ukases, particularly when the proper courts have passed them by. Nevertheless it is done on urgent occasions; and then depositions, petitions, &c. are sent directly by post to the monarch. But in an affair of litigation, if either of the parties would appeal to the empress from the decree of the senate, the petition must be delivered to one of the cabinet-ministers. — In general it is permitted the subjects to utter their complaints and to make a representation of them. Thus, the nobility may send deputies: this the Ukrainians have long been accustomed to do, as also the Livonians and Esthonians: only of late, for the sake of preventing abuses, the form has been

prescribed in which it is to be done. — When the crown is in want of any thing, for instance, materials for building, the delivery of certain products, it is contracted for by fair and open proposals; and, as in other countries, he who offers to undertake it on the lowest terms is the person employed; and, if required, is paid certain sums in advance, on giving proper security.

SECTION V.

The Imperial Family, hereditary Succession, Grand Duke.

While it was the practice to partition the empire, when the ruler was styled Grand Duke, the princes of his family bore the title of Dukes, and when they possessed distinct dukedoms, were called after them. After that custom had ceased, and all the dukedoms united into one body under one sole head, who was styled Tzar, the appellation Tzarevitch, or son of the tzar, came into use, which in the present century was changed for Tzesarevitch, that is, son of the emperor. The last is still at times made use of in state-

papers,

papers *, though it is by no means a general appellative of the imperial family. For the children of it are called, in the preſent tables of precedence, princes and princeſſes; which latter title was borne by Anna and Elizabeth before their acceſſion to the throne. It is now almoſt obſolete, as grand duke, grand ducheſs, ſupply its place: and this not only with the proper and neareſt ſucceſſor, but alſo with his family, all his children bearing the ſtyle of grand dukes and grand ducheſſes; hence it may be inferred, that if he have brothers and ſiſters the ſame would be given to them. Probably it may be a relic of days of yore †. — On the birth of prince Ivan,

* While the emperor was ſtyled in ruſs Tzeſar, his ſon ſhould of courſe be called Tzeſarevitch. But it is ſomewhat ſurpriſing that, after the introduction of the title Imperator, the latter was not rather called Imperatorevitch. It can hardly be accounted for by any particular cuſtom, as even the former expreſſion is foreign to the ruſſian tongue.

† Therefore, a grand duke is called, as formerly, in ruſs, *velikye knæs*, (literally the great prince,) and a grand ducheſs, *velikaya knæghinya*, the great princeſs. — French being much ſpoken at court, the grand duke was, by her majeſty's command, the only perſon in the empire called in that language Monſeigneur. — The terms crown-prince, hereditary prince, heir-apparent, &c. are not uſual here. Neither has any term been introduced in Ruſſia to denote peculiarly the next in ſucceſſion. Rodde, indeed, in his ruſs dictionary

Ivan, who was afterwards declared ſucceſſor to the throne, the then grand-chancellor count Oſtermann propoſed that he ſhould be ſtyled Grand Duke. The regent Anna likewiſe appears in ſeveral records under the title of grand ducheſs; as well as the princeſs Elizabeth previous to her mounting the throne. The latter, it is well known, when empreſs, declared her nephew to be her ſucceſſor, under the title of grand duke. — The expreſſion prince or princeſs is not however on that account entirely exploded: for though in the imperial ukaſes, relating to the births of the grand ducal children, they are uniformly called grand dukes and grand ducheſſes, it is ſaid in the ukaſe of May 21, 1788, expreſsly, that her imperial highneſs the grand ducheſs was ſafely delivered of a grand ducal princeſs, whereupon it is commanded, "that on all occaſions where it is neceſſary to "mention the new-born grand ducal princeſs, "ſhe ſhall be written and denominated her im-"perial highneſs." Whereas the empreſs ſays, in her ukaſe of Dec. 20, 1777, in relation to the

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has the word *naſlednik*, but ſo every heir or ſucceſſor is called; therefore the next heir ſhould be properly ſtyled *naſlednik preſtola* or *preyemnik preſtola*, as the throne is *preſtol*.

birth

birth of the eldeſt of the ſons of Paul Petrovitch, that, God having bleſſed "their imperial highneſſes with a firſt-born ſon, and us with a "grand-ſon Alexander Pavlovitch — — we "ordain, that in all caſes and on all occaſions, "in our empire, that relate to him, the title of "his imperial highneſs the grand duke Alexander Pavlovitch ſhall be given to him." When the ſecond young grand duke Conſtantine Pavlovitch was born, it was ordered in like manner; and in the ukaſe bearing date Aug. 6, 1783, the empreſs ſays: "Her imperial highneſs the grand "ducheſs was ſafely delivered on the 29th of "July, and has borne us a grand daughter, the "grand ducheſs Alexandra Pavlovna;" whereupon the edict proceeds, "that this new-born "grand ducheſs in all affairs where it is requiſite, "ſhall be written and called her imperial "highneſs."

From theſe ſeveral ukaſes it appears, that the next ſucceſſor, his conſort and all their children, are ſtyled grand dukes and grand ducheſſes; and that they all bear the title of imperial highneſs *; that it is conferred upon them always by a ſigned

* Highneſs is in ruſs *vuiſotſcheſtvo*, derived from *vuiſoko*, high. Hence it is ſaid, *Tevo imperatorſkoye vuiſotſcheſtvo*, his or her imperial highneſs.

decree of the monarch *, and that, reſpecting the grand-daughters, the terms grand ducheſs and grand ducal princeſs are ſometimes ſynonimous.

The rights of a grand duke, as heir apparent, have never been accurately defined by any writer. Perhaps it would be no eaſy matter to aſcertain them †. As in other countries, he is, as it were, the firſt ſubject, and is, not only, as every where, under the paternal authority, but likewiſe in general under the authority of the ſovereign, which is of great extent, as is manifeſt from the hiſtory of Peter I. and his eldeſt ſon. — Neither has he, any more than in other ſtates, properly any functions ariſing from his high birth and appointment: they depend on the good pleaſure of the ſovereign. In the late reign the grand duke, by the will of the empreſs his mother, was high-admiral and chief of a

* Whether without ſuch an edict the title would ſtill take place, I ſhall not preſume to inquire. In all kingdoms the children of crowned heads are ſtyled highneſs. In regard to grand-children it is ſometimes otherwiſe.

† An engliſh writer expreſſes his ſurpriſe that the rights, &c. of a grand duke are not expreſsly aſcertained. But it may be aſked, are the rights of the next heir exactly defined in all other countries? How did this appear to be the caſe in England in the year 1788, in the affair of the regency?

regiment

regiment of cuiraſſiers. The empreſs Elizabeth conferred on the then grand duke likewiſe a regiment of cuiraſſiers and the ſuperintendance of the cadet-corps.

The princes and princeſſes of the reigning family have no ſettled apanage or eſtabliſhment: their houſehold, when they have one apart, depends entirely on the pleaſure of the ſovereign. — The annual allowance to the grand duke is uſually, if I miſtake not, 220,000 rubles, and ſometimes more, to which alſo many great preſents are added. Eſtates in land in lieu of revenue have never been (at leaſt in modern times) ſettled on them; but country-ſeats frequently. — The grand duke Paul Petrovitch, by his paternal deſcent from the houſe of Schleſvig-Holſtein, was grand-maſter of the order of St. Anne.

SECTION VI.

Enſigns armorial, imperial Court, and Orders of chivalry.

THESE ſubjects may properly be treated of together, as they need no very circumſtantial diſquiſition, and are in ſome degree related to each other.

The arms in the middle ages were borrowed from Moſco, at that time the imperial reſidence, conſiſting of St. George on horſeback killing a dragon with a ſpear. Tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch made choice of a black ſpread eagle *, with a crown on each head, a larger crown between them, in a golden field, and holding in one claw a ſceptre, and in the other an imperial mound, with the ſaid arms of Moſco on the breaſt. Sometimes it is ſurrounded with a collar compoſed of the arms of ſome of the countries belonging to the ruſſian empire; as Aſtrakhan, Kazan, Siberia, &c.

This is accordingly the imperial ſeal. When the empreſs made uſe of it for letters it had an imperial mantle, and over it an imperial crown †; ſhe ſealed her letters ſometimes with a hand-ſeal, the impreſſion of which was a bunch of flowers, with a bee-hive, and in the middle at top a

* Why he choſe an eagle is uncertain; perhaps becauſe the neighbouring Poles and the german emperor bore one. — As to the George and dragon, it would not be the worſt conjecture that ever was made, that it aroſe merely from the order of the Garter which was ſent to Ivan Vaſſillievitch by queen Elizabeth.

† To ukaſes, patents, &c. there never was that addition. The empreſs Anna uſed only the arms with her name round it.

bee

bee with the ſuperſcription POLESNOYE, i. e. uſeful.

The imperial colleges and ſome of the higher courts of juſtice have always borne theſe arms in their ſignets, commonly with the expreſs notification, that it is her imperial majeſty's ſeal. Only in the conquered provinces ſeveral of the courts of judicature retained the uſe of their antient ſeal. Since the introduction of the governments this cuſtom has almoſt entirely ceaſed: every court employing the imperial ſeal, declaring by letters round it to what court it belongs. Perhaps ſome of the ſpiritual courts or conſiſtories, and others, as well as ſuch others as have no appropriate chancery or public ſeal, are an exception to this.

The court is compoſed of the great officers of ſtate, of ſenators, actual privy-counſellors, princes, counts, barons, &c. whoſe names may be ſeen in the ruſſian court-kalendar, 1 cup-bearer, 1 maſter of the horſe, 1 high chamberlain, 1 maſter of the hunt, 1 court-marſhal, 1 court-maſter, 1 maſter of the ſtables, 23 actual chamberlains, 19 gentlemen of the bed-chamber, 8 adjutant-generals, (of whom two are general field-marſhals, 5 generals in chief, and 1 lieutenant-general), 15 enſign adjutants, 1 miſtreſs of

the court, 8 ſtate-ladies, 1 lady of the bed-chamber, 6 maids of honour. — Many court-holidays, as well as church-holidays, are kept not only in the reſidence, but in other towns; ſuch as the birth and name days of the imperial family, the anniverſary of the recovery of her majeſty from the ſmall-pox, the ſaints of the ſeveral orders, &c. The regiments of the guards have each their anniverſary, on which occaſion the officers dine at the imperial table *. — The court-etiquette much reſembles that in other countries of Europe; not ſo ſtiff and formal as at the ſpaniſh court, or as formerly at that of Vienna, nothing is required but a polite unconſtrained behaviour. — In the amuſements at court, balls, maſquerades, &c. all who are decently dreſſed, even every burgher may take part, no queſtion being ever put on entering concerning rank or birth. — On court-days † alſo acceſs

* At ſome courts to dine with the ſovereign implies to dine at the court-marſhal's table in the palace; but here the officers ſat at the ſame table with her majeſty. Sometimes her ſeat was raiſed rather higher than the reſt, or was ſomewhat ſeparated by the figure of the table; for inſtance, when it was in the ſhape of a ſpread eagle the empreſs ſat at the crown between the two heads.

† Sunday was the grand court-day, when the late empreſs went through the hall of audience to the chapel. Divine

acceſs is open to every ſubject, and the ſtyle of addreſs is without ſtarchneſs on one hand or humiliating expreſſions on the other, but is ſuited to the quality of every individual.

Six orders of knighthood form a part of the ſplendor of the court, having each their inſignia, with their chapters and officers. The firſt three were conſtituted by Peter I. the two next by the late empreſs Catharine II. and the ſixth proceeds from Schleſvig-Holſtein. Of the five former the monarch is always grand-maſter; but of the ſixth, the grand duke *, which he diſpenſes in virtue of a treaty as duke of Schleſvig-Holſtein. To the fourth and fifth, penſions are annexed, though not indiſcriminately to every knight, but only to a ſelect number of the eldeſt, agreeably

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vine ſervice being ended, on her coming back into the hall, the foreign miniſters firſt kiſſed her hand; and foreigners were preſented. Then ſhe advanced ſomewhat farther, where thoſe of her ſubjects ſtood waiting to be preſented. Next came in ſucceſſion all the generals and others who had buſineſs. This done, her majeſty turned off to the chamber of the throne, where the chevalier-guards came to kiſs her hand. — Sometimes on theſe days the concourſe of perſons about the late empreſs amounted to an incredible number. Every lady who came to kiſs her hand, even of the mercantile claſs, &c. ſhe always kiſſed on the cheek in return.

* That is, during the late reign.

to

to the ſtatutes of the order. — Theſe orders * generally take precedence according to the ſeniority of their inſtitution: 1. The order of St. Andrew, the chief of them all, commonly called the blue ribband. It was founded in the year 1689, and was afterwards provided with ſtatutes and habit by the empreſs Anna. 2. The order of St. Catharine; it was inſtituted in 1714, in honour of the empreſs Catharine I. and is confined to ladies, who wear a deep red ribband. It is given only to few perſons; at preſent, beſides the imperial family, it is worn by no more than 17, among whom are one queen and two electoral princeſſes. 3. The order of St. Alexander Neſſky was founded in 1725, and is uſually called the red ribband. 4. The order of St. George was inſtituted for military merit in the land or ſea ſervice, in the year 1769, and contains four claſſes; the ſenior knight in his claſs receives an annual penſion, in the firſt claſs of 700 and in the fourth of 100 rubles; the fourth claſs wears it at the button-hole, the higher claſſes about the neck and acroſs the ſhoulders, to a ribband ſtriped with black and yellow: the firſt

* The account of theſe orders may be here the more curſory, as farther particulars of them may be ſeen in the Life of Catharine II. vol. ii. p. 413—417.

claſſes

claſſes are diſtributed to but few, and therefore the fourth is diſpenſed more liberally: in 1788 of the firſt claſs were only four, and of the ſecond nine knights. 5. The order of the apoſtle-like prince Vladimir was founded in the year 1783, for men of deſert in the civil or military ſtations, and has likewiſe four claſſes, of which the ſenior knight receives a penſion, in the firſt claſs 600, and in the fourth 100 rubles: whoever has ſerved faithfully for 35 years may apply for this order; it is worn to a ribband, red in the middle and on each ſide a black ſtripe: the knights of the two firſt claſſes, as in the other high orders, wear a ſtar on the breaſt. 6. The order of St. Anne, of Holſtein, is worn with a coquelicoq ribband having white edges, acroſs the ſhoulders, and a ſtar at the breaſt. — It is to be obſerved, that the ruſſian orders are never given to the clergy, though to ſuch prelates as were much eſteemed by the late empreſs ſhe gave ſometimes a croſs and ſometimes her portrait, ſet with diamonds, to wear about the neck.

The annual expences of the palace were about 1,500,000 rubles. About two hundred tables were ſpread there twice a day; and the diſhes for them reckoned to amount to 2300. Every third day the court-purveyor received the money for

for making this proviſion*. A pood of coffee was uſed there every day; and 8000 poods of ſalt per month.

* The waſte at court was carried to an inexpreſſible height. The houſes or apartments which the empreſs cauſed to be fitted up for the perſons to whom ſhe gave quarters, contained frequently in furniture more than three times their value. — Twelve hundred candles were every day delivered out to the guard, who never conſumed one hundred. — The dinner for the officer on guard coſt 70 rubles; that it was worth nothing was not the fault of the empreſs. Every officer about the palace aſked for what he would in glaſſes, decanters, and things of that nature: nothing ever came back; and this happened every day. — The quantity of china-ware that was broke is incredible. Whoever broke any was obliged to ſhew the fragments, but the fragments of four or five pieces would very well ſerve for a dozen, as he was never required to fit them together. — They whoſe buſineſs it was to clean the ſilver made rapid fortunes. They had a certain ſubſtance, which by rubbing brought off much of the metal; the diminution was apparent to every attentive obſerver. — For the four months which the empreſs paſſed at Tzarſkoe-Selo, 25 engliſh miles from town, the Neva-water for her own table (as ſhe would take no other) coſt her ten thouſand rubles annually.

VIEW

OF THE

RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

BOOK VI.

FORCES OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

SECTION I.

Land Forces.

TO preſerve the internal ſecurity or quiet of ſo vaſt an empire, particularly to prevent diſturbances that might ariſe in the provinces and among the different tribes from miſunderſtandings, or the artifices of ill-deſigning perſons, demands a conſiderable body of troops; but a ſtill greater force is neceſſary to cover the frontiers againſt foreign enemies, and to be prepared for war from whatever quarter it may ariſe. Though the

the ruſſian army be numerous, yet in the opinion of ſome it might, conformably with the relations of the empire, be ſtill larger. But experience has ſhewn that it is ſufficient; and in caſes of emergency the monarch can immediately raiſe a body of troops, which, if he do not chooſe to lead them into the field, will ſerve well enough to maintain the public tranquillity, to garriſon the forts on the borders, to repel the incurſions of an enemy, to put a ſtop to his ravages, and to deſtroy his magazines. I ſpeak of the irregular troops which the monarch can call out at pleaſure from thoſe nations who are obliged to perform military ſervice in lieu of the public or uſual tribute.

It is well known that the army conſiſts partly of regular infantry and cavalry, and partly of irregular troops. If we imagine that the latter are merely a wretched undiſciplined rabble, we ſhall be in a miſtake; for though the Kalmuks, Baſchkirs, &c. who form a part of them, are neither very ſerviceable, nor at all like the common ſoldiers of Europe, yet they conſtitute but a ſmall proportion of their number, and are ſeldom employed againſt regular troops. But the Kozaks have acquired great military reputation; they fully anſwer all the purpoſes of regular huſſars,

huſſars *, are alſo in modern times very well diſciplined, ſo that they could ſcarcely be reckoned irregulars if they did not retain their old kozak form of government, and at the end of the war always return home to their plough. The Kozaks of Tſchuguyef have long ſerved as well as the beſt huſſars; and lately thoſe of the Don, the moſt numerous, are fully equal to them †. At preſent, as may be ſeen by late ukaſes, the moſt ſerviceable Kozaks are divided in to thoſe of Ekatarinoſlaf and thoſe of the Euxine; at leaſt they come moſt into conſideration. Prince Potemkin was hetman or commander in chief of both ‡.

Perhaps the regular troops would be augmented were it not for the ſake of ſparing the people, and of not burdening them with raiſing

* All the irregular troops are of horſe, and ſerve as cavalry.

† Mr. Coxe ſeems not to have thoroughly conſidered the importance of the kozak-ſervice.

‡ Among the Kozaks of Ekatarinoſlaf thoſe of the Don are comprehended. Thoſe of the Euxine are originally, likewiſe, Don-kozaks, but were tranſplanted into other regions bordering on that ſea. — Thoſe Kozaks, who at preſent do not perform kozak-ſervice, e. gr. the malo-ruſſian and ſlobode-kozaks, as well as thoſe very remote, ſuch as the ſiberian, or the Tunguſes, who are bound to kozak-ſervice, fall not under this head.

recruits. Accordingly it is uſual in war time to enliſt free people at no ſmall expence, though the empire is obliged to furniſh recruits gratis *. Hence it not unfrequently happens, that to avoid frequent levies the regiments are not complete †. — Beſides, it is to be obſerved, that ſome diſtricts, in virtue of their privileges and immunities, furniſh no recruits at all, as, the provinces of the Baltic ‡; and ſuch nations as, by their

* At ſlight recruitings, which, even in time of peace, are always ordered at ſtated periods, every 500 ſouls (meaning males) muſt furniſh one man. If we deduct children, the aged and infirm, deſerters, &c. the recruit falls upon ſomewhere about 260 able-bodied men. If theſe procure the recruit's conſent to ſerve by money, to which the poor contribute nothing, it falls pretty heavy on the reſt. Sometimes each recruit coſts the community 200 or 300 rubles, and even more.

† In times of peace there is a deficiency, perhaps, of one half of the complement. — There was once a report, as if it were intended, by way of ſparing the recruits, to raiſe the pay of the officers by the addition of one tertial, and in conſideration of that, to allow them for the future no dentſchiki (ſervants taken out of the recruits). By this means the empire would be a great gainer in people; as, from the dentſchiks, in the land and ſea-ſervice, it might raiſe, perhaps, a body of 30,000 freſh ſoldiers; but then many an officer, who has no boors of his own, would ſcarcely get a ſervant for wages.

‡ Only Ingria muſt now furniſh recruits.

particular

particular conſtitution, perform military ſervice, as the Don-kozaks. In like manner ſome of the kraſnoyarſkian-kozaks gain an exemption for themſelves and their poſterity forever, by undertaking to guard the frontiers *. — No German throughout the empire †, nor any nobleman who has no eſtates, nor any man in office, furniſhes recruits; but this is not the caſe with the ruſſian merchants, who, however, pay money in lieu of it, for each recruit 500 rubles; but all boors muſt ſerve in perſon.

Since the late empreſs aboliſhed the former very inſignificant irregular ſervice of the malo-ruſſian and ſlobode Kozaks, and inſtead thereof raiſed from them regiments of complete regular cavalry, belonging moſtly to the light horſe, the army has received a conſiderable augmentation, to the benefit of the empire.

The notion that Ruſſia, from the great number of its irregular troops, has no need to keep up a ſtrong regular army, with the conſequence drawn from it, that in time of peace, for the ſake of promoting population, the levies might be diſcontinued, betrays a want of due conſideration of the ſubject. For, though in the heart

* Pallas, travels, tom. iii. p. 363.

† Whether man of letters, merchant, artiſt, tradeſman, coloniſt, &c.

of Ruſſia no apprehenſion need be entertained of an attack from a foreign enemy; and the empire on ſeveral ſides is ſufficiently protected by nature in its immenſe ſteppes, its impenetrable foreſts, and impaſſable rivers, without frontier-lines and garriſons, or ſuch attempts might be eaſily fruſtrated by a ſmall body of irregular forces *; yet it ſhould not be forgotten, that ſince the military eſtabliſhment was brought into uſe by Lewis XIV. great ſtanding-armies muſt every where be kept on foot in Europe; that wiſe princes ſhould, even when in the quiet enjoyment of peace, be ever prepared for emergences; that, as the wars which have broke out in the preſent century have ſhewn, the ruſſian army is by no means too numerous; that irregular troops, if not ſupported by regulars, are not at all times ſufficient; that there is a neceſſity not only for frontier-forts, but at all events for ſtrong places deeper within the country, to which the army may retreat in caſes of diſaſter, or from which it may be commodiouſly ſupplied with proviſion and ammunition †; that ſtationary regiments

* In caſes of neceſſity, the country-carriers, &c. have been armed as Kozaks, and employed in garriſoning the frontiers, and other ſervice.

† This deſerves the conſideration of thoſe who deem all fortifications uſeleſs; and that ſecurity entirely depends on a well-

giments are beneficial to many of the ruſſian provinces, by promoting the ſale of the products, and bringing money into circulation *, to all which much more might be added.

As even in publications of no diſtant date, and in which we might reaſonably expect juſt ſtatements, we conſtantly ſee very erroneous accounts of the ruſſian army, it ſeems a kind of duty to deliver a faithful repreſentation of it from the moſt authentic documents.

To begin then with the ſtate of the army previous to the breaking out of the laſt war againſt the Turks and Swedes; which we ſhall find in the liſt ſent by the college of war to the ſeveral regiments regarding their diſpoſition and diſtribution †. It contains at once the number of

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a well-diſciplined and numerous army. Frontier-forts not only ſecure the provinces, but alſo keep off the enemy: to neglect having ſtrong places farther in the country, or to let them go to ruin, is like giving up the magazines and arſenals as a prey to every invader.

* Little Ruſſia, abounding in numerous products, wears a flouriſhing appearance when ſeveral regiments are quartered there; which otherwiſe finds it extremely difficult to obtain a vent for its commodities. When no troops are there the want of money is often very ſenſibly felt.

† The authenticity of this liſt is not liable to the ſlighteſt doubt, being made out, not for foreigners, but for the army itſelf, coming from a high imperial college, and diſcriminating whatever it ſtates by name.

the generals appointed, and the names of all the regiments *; both ſhould here be noticed, but a ſhort abſtract will be quite ſufficient. — By that liſt it appears, that in the year 1786 the generals of the army were as follows: 3 general field-marſhals, 11 generals in chief, 22 lieutenant-generals, 54 major-generals: to theſe are added, 1 quarter-maſter-general, when the poſt is occupied; 15 generals of artillery, 9 generals of engineers, of both as well general in chief as lieutenant-general and major-general. Beſides ſome generals appointed in the college of war, likewiſe at the war-commiſſariat and at the ſtores. — The brigadiers are not particularly ſpecified, as they act as colonels in their regiments.

The regiments which compoſed the army at that time, (among which, however, the guards, the artilleriſts, the garriſons, &c. are not reckoned,) were,

Cavalry: five regiments of cuiraſſiers, viz. 1. The life cuiraſſiers. 2. The grand-duke's. 3. The Georgian. 4. The Kazan. 5. The Ekatarinoſlaf, afterwards generally called prince Potemkin's regiment.

Nineteen regiments of carabiniers: 1. The Riazan. 2. The Kief. 3. The Tſchernigof. 4.

* The names of the regiments are unchangeable, as they are taken, not from their commanders, but moſtly from provinces and towns.

Perieſlavl,

Perieſlavl. 5. Tver. 6. Severſk. 7. Niſhinſk. 8. Lubenſk. 9. Glukhof. 10. Starodub. 11. Sophia. 12. Roſtof. 13. Narva. 14. Kargapol. 15. Moſco. 16. Pſcove. 17. Yamburg. 18. Ingermanland. 19. Riga.

Ten regiments of dragoons, viz. 1. Smolenſk. 2. St. Peterſburg. 3. Kinburn. 4. Aſtrakhan. 5. Taganrok. 6. Niſhney-Novgorod. 7. Vladimir. 8. Orenburg. 9. Siberia. 10. Irkutſk.

Sixteen regiments of light-horſe, viz. 1. Oſtrogof. 2. Ukraine. 3. Kharkhof. 4. Sumſk. 5. Aktirſk. 6. Iſumſk. 7. Voronetch. 8. Pultava. 9. Pavlogrod. 10. Mariopol. 11. Alexandrof. 12. Kherſon. 13. Elizabethgorod. 14. Olviopol. 15. Konſtantingorod. 16. Taurida.

To which muſt be added 17 regiments or upwards of kozaks.

Infantry: Ten regiments of grenadiers, viz. 1. The life-grenadiers. 2. The Moſco. 3. St. Peterſburg. 4. Siberian. 5. Malo-ruſſian. 6. Ekatarinoſlaf. 7. Aſtrakhan. 8. Tauridan. 9. Kief. 10. Fanogorſk (of theſe ſome were newly raiſed).

Fifty-nine regiments of muſqueteers, viz. 1. The Pſcove. 2. Riazan. 3. Veliko-luki. 4. Archangel. 5. Bielozero. 6. Narva. 7. Neſſky. 8. Kekſholm. 9. Naſcheburg. 10. Novaghinſk.

11. Sophia. 12. Tſchernigof. 13. Dnieprof. 14. Vologda. 15. Uglitz. 16. Ingermanland. 17. Smolenſk. 18. Tula. 19. Roſtof. 20. Apſcheron. 21. Novgorod. 22. Kherſon (of four battalions). 23. Caucaſus (likewiſe of four battalions). 24. Moſco. 25. Vladimir. 26. Kazan. 27. Ladoga. 28. Kabardinſk. 29. Tiflinſk. 30. Troitzka. 31. Viætka. 32. Sevaſtopol. 33. Orlof. 34. Staroſkol. 35. Koſlof. 36. Kurſk. 37. Riga. 38. Velenſk. 39. Murom. 40. Tambof. 41. Yaroſlavl. 42. Schluſſelburg. 43. Sieffk. 44. Alexiopol. 45. Brianſk. 46. Yeletzk. 47. Polotzk. 48. Voronetch. 49. Niſhney-Novgorod. 50. Niſof. 51. Azof. 52. Tobolſk. 53. Traghinſk. 54. Vyborg. 55. Perme. 56. Sufdal. 57. Reval. 58. Schirvan. 59. Vitepſk *.

Thirteen Yæger-corps, viz. 1. Finland. Beloruſſian. 3. Livonian. 4. Bogue. 5. Taurida. 6. Caucaſus. 7. Kuban. 8. The firſt, 9. The ſecond, 10. The third, 11. The fourth, 12. The fifth, 13. The ſixth, Yæger-battalions.

Ten field-battalions, which were frequently called only battalions, viz. 1. The Ekatarinenburg. 2. The Semipalatna new raiſed battalion. 3. The firſt, 4. The ſecond, 5. The third, 6.

* The four laſt were new raiſed.

The

The fourth, 7. The fifth, 8. The ſixth, and 9 and 10 the two Tſchernomorſki * battalions.

Then laſtly, the Orenburg troops and the Siberian troops; the number and diviſions whereof are not ſtated in the liſt.

The ſtate and ſtrength of the army during the laſt turkiſh war appears from the following liſt, likewiſe drawn up by the college of war in the year 1791 †. According to which the army at that time, in its proper eſtabliſhment ‡, contained:

INFANTRY: Ten regiments of grenadiers §, each of 3983 men; 58 regiments of muſqueteers ||, 18 each of 2044 men, 38 each of 2373 men; 2 of four battalions, each of 3975 men; 9 battalions of yægers, each of 3900 men; in this number 2 tſchernomorſkian are compriſed, of which the ekatarinoſlaf yæger corps is formed; 2 battalions each of 975 men; 12 field-battalions each of 996 men.

* That is, of the Black-ſea.

† Communicated by a member of that college.

‡ That is, as it was deſigned for that war: therefore many troops appear in it which perform no ſervice in time of peace, e. gr. the Baſchkirs.

§ In ruſs they are called *grenodèr*.

|| The Ruſſians call them *muſketèr*.

CAVALRY:

CAVALRY: Three regiments of cuiraſſiers, viz. the life-regiment of 5285 men *, the grand duke's of 1080 men, and prince Potemkin's regiment of 997 men; 16 regiments of carabineers, each of 1051 men; 10 regiments of dragoons †, each of 1808 men; the Pſcove dragoon regiment of 1889 men, to which belong 5 ſquadrons of huſſars making 840 men ‡; 14 regiments of light-horſe, each of 997 men §; 2 regi-

* The whole of this uncommonly large regiment was formed by prince Potemkin out of 3 old cuiraſſier-regiments, to which he alſo added 2 regiments of light-horſe. The whole regiment, which was divided into three brigades, and 36 (or, as others ſay, in 32) ſquadrons, he gave to the command of a general his relation. There was a talk as if it were to be again divided into ſeveral ſmall regiments. From the incredibly great advantages which a colonel of horſe may annually make, the chief of ſuch a regiment may be very ſoon rich if he pleaſe.

† All the dragoons wear a green uniform faced with red, and large red pantaloons.

‡ It was firſt a carabineer-regiment, but in 1789 they were turned into dragoons. It conſiſts of 10 dragoon and 5 huſſar ſquadrons. The huſſars were partly raiſed in the laſt war. — Many of the regiments both of horſe and foot were much increaſed in the number of men by prince Potemkin.

§ Prince Potemkin formed them out of huſſar and piquenecer regiments. It is ſaid that they are reduced to huſſars again.

2 regiments of huſſars, each of 997 men *. The Kief horſe-yægers, which were drafted from ſeveral carabineer-regiments and ſquadrons, in all 1846 men.

Kozaks: in the army in all 27,330 men. The companies formed of the inhabitants of the governments of Ekatarinoſlaf and Kharkof, under the command of lieutenant-colonel Buſin, 2578 men. Thoſe ſent to Caucaſus †, Khoper, 764 men, Volga 602 men. Tſchernomorſkian true Kozaks ‡, horſe 1275 men; foot 2475 men;

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again. The Hamburgh gazette of 1792 under the head Poliſh Frontiers, mentions the great alteration taking place in the ruſſian army, by changing all the light-horſe into huſſars, and making 3 out of 4 battalions of grenadiers.

* They were firſt raiſed in the laſt war by prince Potemkin.

† Theſe Kozaks, by the explanation obtained from certain officers, (for the accuracy of which, however, I cannot vouch,) were ſent from the rivers Khoper and Volga to Caucaſus as coloniſts, and at the ſame time as a frontier-guard, and there ſettled. But, as on account of their performing duty, they had not quite eſtabliſhed their houſehold, they received the uſual pay as Kozaks.

‡ The appellation being new, many perſons (even in the army) are not properly acquainted with the meaning of it, though it is well known to be taken from the Black-ſea. It denotes

men; Arnaut*-commandos 1419 men; volunteer cohorts 178 men; the tauridan 6 diviſions, 1600 men.

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denotes thoſe whom prince Potemkin ſelected from the formerly *true* zaporogian Kozaks, that is, they who, on the abolition of their conſtitution, remained in the empire, or after they had emigrated ſoon returned and applied for military ſervice. In reward for their zeal and bravery during the laſt war both by ſea and land, the empreſs gave them by ukaſe, dated June 30, 1792, the iſland Phanagoria (formerly Taman,) in the diſtrict of Taurida, with the country between the river Kuban and the ſea of Azof, along the coaſt to the town of Yeiſk, and along the river to the mouth of the Laba, in fee ſimple for ever, with the order annexed that they ſhould henceforth receive their commands through the governor-general of Taurida.

* This word in ruſs is four ſyllables, and muſt be pronounced *Arna-uti*. The following account of them was communicated by a general-officer: "They are native "Greeks, who, during the laſt war, ſerved in the Archipe- "lago. All their officers were of their own nation. At "the concluſion of the war 4000 of them came to general "Barſef at Kertch and Yenicaly; theſe were divided into "companies, but not of equal numbers. They were after- "wards ſettled in various parts as coloniſts. Some Valak- "hians and Moldavians aſſociated with them, of whom "ſeveral were likewiſe diſtributed into particular companies "and obtained the name of Arnauts: hence we often hear "of volokſki Arnauti and molduanſki Arnauti (valakhian "and moldavian Arnauts.) In the two laſt turkiſh wars "they were found to be of great ſervice." — It was mentioned

1600 men. The corps of malo-ruſſian Kozaks and hunters formed by order of prince Potemkin 5600 men.

GARRISONS: 109 battalions amounting to 85,206 men *. Beſides theſe there are in the army diſtributed on the Dvina, 5 regiments of Don-kozaks each of 500 men; 1 Yamſchtſchiks-regiment of 1000 men †; 2 regiments of Baſchkirs each of 500 men; 1 regiment of the Meſtſcheræks of 500 men.

So far goes the liſt of the college of war. By which we ſee that the army in the laſt war, according to the report brought into the college of war, conſiſted of 334,164, but, compriſing the garriſons, of 419,370 men. To reduce it to the peace-eſtabliſhment deduct 21,200 men. —

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tioned by another officer that the proper Arnauts proved bad Kozaks on horſeback, when employed at the out-poſts; but thoſe of Moldavia and Valakhia were abſolutely cowards and often ran away. He added, that many Arnauts had ſettled at Kherſon, where they enjoy ten free-years, and after that period were to pay annually 5 kopeeks for every deſætine of land.

* So they are ſtated, according to the ſtaff, by the college of war; but they are not always complete.

† They were raiſed in the laſt war from the carriers of Moſco, and obliged to arm themſelves as kozaks.

But,

But, to that number ſtill conſiderable corps remain to be added. We ſhall juſt mention them, without adverting to the corps of cadets and military academies. — To the proper army-eſtabliſhment are to be reckoned:

1. The GUARDS: which conſiſt of 1 regiment of horſe, uſually called the horſe-guards, and by common computation amount to 1000 men: 3 regiments of infantry, vulgarly called the foot-guards, and are reckoned at 10,000 men; but this number is too ſmall: 1 corps of chevaliers or the chevalier-guards; which, beſides their upper and under officers, conſiſt of 60 chevaliers, who are all officers (moſtly lieutenants,) and as ſuch inſcribed in the field-regiments: 1 ſquadron of life-huſſars: 1 ſquadron of life-kozaks.

The common ſtatement which makes all theſe guards to be about 11,300 men is erroneous; they ſhould be eſtimated at leaſt at 2500 more; for all the four regiments have a great number of ſupernumerary ſubaltern officers *, which are

* Numbers of the young nobility are entered, particularly in the horſe-guards. Even children are admitted by favour, and receive paſſports as ſubalterns. — It is ſaid, that in future not ſo many are to be tranſplanted into the army, as thereby deſerving officers are often diſappointed in the hopes of advancement.

gradually

gradually removed from them to the army as officers.

Some of these regiments are occasionally ordered to march against the enemy. To conclude; none of them have colonels, the empress being colonel of each; the lieutenant-colonels or commanders are always men of high rank, as general-field-marshals.

2. The artillery, of which are reckoned all the troops under the command of the quarter-master-general. These are, according to the staff: 1 regiment of bombadiers of 2510 men; 2 regiments of cannoniers each of 2497 men; 2 regiments of fusileers each of 2497 men; the engineer-corps of 1065 men; 1 company of miners of 296 men; 1 company of pioneers of 245 men; the artillery-corps and its school 423 men; at the pontons are 798 men; with the artillery-horse are 3823 men; at the laboratories of Petersburg and Mosco 83 men, at Petersburg besides 286 men; in all the garrisons 8376 men; in the arsenals 1168 men. — Consequently, therefore, in all 29,061 men.

3. Some detached corps and commandos, particularly: 1. the soldiers employed at the mines, gardens, &c. Including the sons of the soldiers in the garrison-schools, who are maintained and taught at the crown's expence, and then

then put into the field regiments as writers, &c. the number was calculated a few years ago at 34,687. — 2. The military commandos for the ſeveral governments, which according to the number of circles conſiſt in each government of 300 to 500 men, and are actual ſoldiers either as infantry or horſe-dragoons *. As they are not always complete, we may ſet them down at about 13,000 men. — 3. The irregular troops of the lines, which inſtead of their taxes provide for the ſafety of the frontiers, ſuch as the Ural-kozaks, Baſchkirs, Tunguſes, &c. or muſt eſcort travellers, as various branches of the Don-kozaks. Their number can hardly be ſtated with accuracy; but it is very conſiderable. — 4. The great multitude of horſe kept upon the coaſts and the frontiers, forming a ſort of militia, and are under their own officers or border-inſpectors. Their number amounts to ſeveral thouſands. 5. Jurats at the offices of the circles for rents and receipts, in which military perſons, particularly ſubaltern officers are taken. In the whole empire they amount to ſome hundreds.

Taking all theſe together we ſhall find them to be about 600,000 men, of whom we may reckon at leaſt 500,000 effective ſoldiers in actual

* Among them are many ſuperannuated ſoldiers diſcharged from the marching regiments.

ſervice. — The national militia is not here taken into the account, it having been aboliſhed, and the troops converted into marching regiments *. — Whoever therefore would ſtate the force of the ruſſian army, ſhould clearly define what he has regard to in ſo doing, namely, whether he means the whole of the land-forces including the guards, the whole artillery department, the garriſons, the provincial commandos, and the irregular troops; or merely compriſes the proper field regiments, with or without the Kozaks in the field ſervice, which are indeed ſtill called irregular troops, but are ſo well diſciplined that they may be uſed as trained huſſars.

A few remarks may be here put together without being very anxious in the ſelection.

Though ſome authors aſcribe but little value to the ruſſian ſoldiers, yet others have begun of late to do them juſtice, on ſeeing with aſtoniſhment the great achievements which the ruſſian

* So long ago as in the former turkiſh war, general field-marſhal count Romantzof began to make ſome regiments which came to his army about the year 1771 into field-regiments, and to give them white inſtead of green uniforms. This national militia conſiſted of fine ſtout men, chiefly odnodvortzi; in their regiments great order and decorum was obſerved, and they were richly provided with all neceſſaries.

army has performed. One writer affirms that the ruſſian ſoldiers, like the invincible legions of the antient Romans, take one fortreſs after another, defeat the enemy whenever they can get ſight of them, &c. Adding, that Ruſſia alone was able to carry on a war againſt the Turks with ſuch ſucceſs; that the Ruſſian wants but little *, and that, (which however extravagantly expreſſed, under limitations contains ſome truth,) unprovided as he is, he proceeds to Conſtantinople to provide himſelf better †. — It may therefore be aſſerted, that Ruſſia without detri-

* It is incredible and inconceivable how the common ſoldier makes his ſmall pay and proviſion ſuffice; nay, he even accumulates a little capital, or at leaſt on holidays can afford to treat himſelf with ſtrong liquors. Not to mention that at times a commander deprives him of ſome under various pretexts. To ſatisfy all his wants he has no more than a yearly pay of 6 or 7 rubles (in garriſon it is ſtill leſs) with his allowance of flour and grits: he buys, in the meſs, meat and greaſe or oil; clubs with ſome others to purchaſe a horſe to carry his little pack on long marches; muſt pay for every button, &c. which he happens to loſe; and buy articles of clothes when thoſe allowed him are not ſufficient: for neither his two ſhirts made of cheap linen, nor his boots, for which only 45 kopeeks are allowed him, (and therefore cheap leather is uſed,) with a pair of ſhoes, will laſt the year through with conſtant uſe.

† Crantz, on various ſubjects of modern hiſtory, tom. iii. p. 124.

ment

ment may diſpenſe with a number of ſtrong fortifications, as the army ſupplies the place of them, and it is never accuſtomed to give way, if the commanders ſhew but proper courage. This may be the reaſon why ſo many fortifications which are not deemed neceſſary as tenable places on the frontiers, are not carefully kept up. However the empire has forts enough of various kinds.

Prince Potemkin introduced a great number of new regulations into the army. Among others, he ſaved the men great trouble and expence by freeing them from the neceſſity of dreſſing their hair with powder and whitening their leathers; he made them crop their hair inſtead of wearing curls; in place of the great hat, he gave them a caſque or morion, which in winter protected their head from the cold; for the long ſword of the cavalry he provided them with a ſhort ſabre, and entirely took away the ſide-arms from the infantry, leaving them only the bayonet; he exchanged the long coat for a ſort of jacket*, with the addition of long looſe pantaloons, &c.

* The officers likewiſe at preſent wear this ſhort dreſs when on ſervice, with the long trowſers; at other times they have their former uniforms; in ſeveral regiments they have even three or four different dreſſes.

— Several alterations were likewiſe made in the cavalry. Each regular regiment now conſiſts of 6 ſquadrons, (formerly of 10 companies,) the firſt commanded by the colonel, the 6th by the lieutenant-colonel, the 2d by the premier-major, the 5th by the ſenior ſecond-major, the 3d by the ſecond ſecond-major, (not known before,) the 4th by the ſenior captain. Beſides the ſtaff, every regiment had 6 captains, 12 lieutenants, and 13 cornets (one of whom muſt be commiſſary, i. e. receive and take care of the money and neceſſaries). Many regiments had upwards of 20 ſupernumerary captains *. Moreover, in moſt of the regiments of cavalry were likewiſe cadets, who muſt occaſionally do duty as officers, and were better treated than ſubalterns. Each ſquadron conſiſts of 2 companies, and each of theſe of 3 corporalſhips or 69 men who come in the front. Beſides theſe to each company belong a plotnik or carpenter to make the baggage-waggon and whatever elſe is wanted of wood, a ſmith, and a tzerulnik or ſhaver, all three to be conſidered and paid as common troopers. Though each ſquadron preſents only 138 horſe in front, yet on account of the ſubalterns, &c.

* This is becauſe many young ſubalterns are taken out of the guards to be made officers in the field-regiments; or even becauſe not every one who is advanced can immediately find a poſt.

they

they are obliged to have 155 ſaddle-horſes, beſides draught horſes.

In the turkiſh war the army being obliged to act in ſeveral places at once, the troops were divided into ſo many corps, and therefore the main body of the army was ſometimes not very numerous, and yet was always victorious; what muſt we conclude but that the men are brave, and capable of any enterpriſe *. Anecdotes are related of brave and reſolute officers who acquired great renown in the two laſt wars againſt the Turks by acts of real heroiſm †; and as for the

* We are not in general to conſider ſo much the numbers as the utility and courage of the ſoldiers, and the ſucceſs that has every where attended them, particularly in modern times. A veteran ſoldier will even frequently inſpire fortitude into a young officer. — Among a great many other anecdotes which I might quote, I ſhall mention only one of an officer of the yægers, who, defending a place in Finland in 1790, received 16 wounds. On his falling, two of his people helped him up and ſtood ſupporting him, ſaying, "Only command us, and we ſhall certainly conquer!" He commanded, and they kept their word. The Swedes were beat off, and the ruſſian yæger-commando maintained their poſts under their lieutenant, who was therefore made a major.

† Their names are known either by the gazettes or by the rewards they received, at leaſt in part. It is not only turkiſh and other irregular armies; they are able to beat regulars alſo, as was evinced in the ſeven years war as well as the laſt war with the Turks.

men, they were pronounced even by Frederic II. to be excellent ſoldiers. The ruſſian ſoldier will not fall back one ſtep, while his commander bravely keeps his ground; he contents himſelf with an extremely little pay, and with very ſlender diet, and is always cheerful; hungry and thirſty, he traverſes the heavy ſands of the deſerts under the load of his accoutrements, without murmur or complaint *; executes every command; reckons nothing impoſſible or too difficult; does every thing that he is ordered without ſhunning any danger; and is inventive of a thouſand means for accompliſhing his deſign. What may not be performed with ſuch an † army when led on by experienced and valiant generals

* That is, when he ſees that the commander is not to blame for the ſcarcity. — Indeed the veteran ſoldier will hold out longer than the young recruit.

† We need only advert to the victories which a ſmall body ſometimes gained over a party of the enemy conſiſting of twice their number, in the two laſt turkiſh wars. The ſame obſervation may be made concerning the fleet. The good qualities we aſcribe to the Ruſſian lie in his national character as being proper to the whole nation. It is ſomewhat ſurpriſing that perſons who cannot deny them to the ruſſian ſoldiers, (and likewiſe to the boors,) yet pretend that they proceed either from their vaſſalage or their inherent ſtupidity: the Don-kozak is no vaſſal, and yet is brave; the ruſſian boor is indeed a vaſſal, but he is any thing leſs than ſtupid: he is extremely artful and cunning, and fitted by nature for every thing.

in

in whom they have confidence *. Let the ſoldier but ſee that he is ſpared as much as poſſible, he attaches himſelf with all his ſoul to his commander †, and performs almoſt miracles. — Well might the empreſs ‡ denominate the Ruſſians an obedient, brave, intrepid, enterpriſing, and powerful people.

The opinion generally adopted, that Peter I. was the firſt who took foreign officers into his ſervice, and raiſed regular regiments by their means, is unfounded; perhaps alſo the addition, that he learned the manual exerciſe in the firſt formed company; for, without mentioning the ſtrelitzes, which had been eſtabliſhed long be-

* Peter I. knew his countrymen, when he ſaid after ſuffering many loſſes, that his army would ſoon learn to beat Charles XII. at firſt the attack of a diſciplined regular enemy was a ſtrange thing to them.

† In the turkiſh war of 1770, general Proſorofſky allowed his corps to appear without hair-powder and without whitening their leathers: by this indulgence he won the hearts of his ſoldiers. — Prince Potemkin, ſome few years ſince, diſcarded throughout the army, not only a part of their heavy arms, for inſtance, the pallaſh of the infantry, but alſo the inconvenient narrow coat, the hair-dreſſing which was ſuch a heavy loſs on their time and their ſleep, and which cauſed an unneceſſary expence in powder, with other inconveniences; and all the world knows how the ſoldiers were attached to him with heartfelt gratitude.

‡ In her letter of grace to the nobility in 1785.

fore him as a ſort of regular militia in continual ſervice, but which he for weighty reaſons aboliſhed, his father had already cauſed ſeveral, quite regular regiments, to be formed by foreign officers, which were ſtationed not at Moſco but at Tula: among theſe were particularly Engliſhmen and Scotſmen. In the archives of the college of war are preſerved the liſts of them and their pay *. Theſe officers might put a regiment on the foreign footing; but it was not by their doing that the ruſſian ſoldier had thoſe good qualities juſt mentioned, and which form a part of the national character. On the other hand Peter I. was the creator of his army, not by having formed ſome regular regiments, but by conſtituting it purely of ſuch, with the exception of the irregular troops ſtill in being, and by introducing the raiſing of recruits and the head-money inſtead of the former practice of making the nobles and their ſerfs do ſervice in the camp †.

— Ever

* Two regiments, one of cavalry and another of infantry were commanded by a Scotſman as colonel, and have a ſtaff's company in each of them; he received four times the uſual pay.

† Many little anecdotes are related of what happened on this occaſion, moſt of them perhaps the invention of an idle moment, or at leaſt much exaggerated; but, ſuppoſing they were true, they excite neither laughter nor ſurpriſe, as, on the introduction of foreign cuſtoms, the like might have happened

— Ever ſince his time, every German, without regard to birth, upon proper behaviour is gradually advanced, and becomes an officer *. However, the late empreſs granted conſiderable privileges by ukaſe to the nobility. A young man of burgher condition muſt have performed twelve years of good ſervice before he is made an officer, (particularly good conduct produces ex-

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happened in any country. — According to one of them, at that time a certain boyar thought a major-general ſuperior to a lieutenant-general, and in making out the patent, in the emperor's abſence, committed a miſtake. Of another we are told, that, inſtead of giving an officer the reprimand, or putting him under arreſt, as he was bid, he ordered him to have the battogues (i. e. to be beaten with ſticks); but general Ogilvie, an Engliſhman, who had come from the auſtrian ſervice, drew up the articles of war, became the only lieutenant field-marſhal in the ruſſian army, and laſtly went back to Auſtria, was ſo incenſed at this behaviour, that he threatened, with all the foreign officers, to quit the ſervice unleſs the aggrieved officer was honourably diſcharged, and compenſated in ſome way or other for the inſult he had received. As the boyar knew that ſubalterns even of noble birth might be corporally puniſhed with beating, (which was only aboliſhed by the late empreſs in the year 1775,) he might be led into the miſtake that ſuch puniſhment was proper for the offending officer.

* Even under-officers, who by birth were vaſſal-boors, may by good behaviour riſe to be officers.

ceptions to this rule). Accordingly, whoever enters the military ſervice, whether in the guards or in marching regiments, if he would get early promotion muſt bring proof of his noble deſcent. — As the nobility by this means are rapidly advanced, we ſee in the marching regiments a number of young officers, particularly from the guards, who, after having ſerved or been enliſted ſome years, have been removed thither *. Nevertheleſs there are perſons enough who have grown grey under arms, or ſometimes, eſpecially in profound peace, remain long in the ſame poſt †. — Some were apprehenſive that the army would loſe many good officers by the introduction of the new mode of governing the provinces; becauſe poſts in the civil department are attended with more convenience and a better ſalary. But it occaſioned no defect in the army; nay, many regiments, previous to the breaking out of the laſt war, had ſeveral ſupernumerary ſtaff-officers as well as others.

* It was long a practice for young noblemen, eſpecially livonians, &c. to procure patents as poliſh officers, and then to enter the ruſſian ſervice as officers, without having ſerved; but Catharine II. reformed this abuſe.

† This was particularly the caſe before the laſt turkiſh war, in the heavy cavalry; which made promotion very ſlow in coming.

During

During and ſoon after the war of 1770 the late empreſs thought good to make ſeveral regulations in the army. Among others ſhe ordered that all the heavy cavalry ſhould have their own chief, namely, the general field-marſhal count Romantzof; as well as the light-horſe, theirs in the perſon of the general field-marſhal prince Potemkin. Farther, that ſome perſonages, become famous for great exploits, ſhould have honourable ſurnames annexed to thoſe of their family, as, Romantzof-Zadunaiſky, Potemkin-Tavritſcheſky, Suvarof-Kymnitſky; as alſo, that ſome, as a particular mark of favour, ſhould have a peculiar regiment, though under the former reigns, no general * had ever received the like. To this muſt be eſpecially added, that prince Potemkin was appointed general inſpector of the whole army, to whom ſeveral ſub-inſpectors were added. He put a ſtop to numberleſs diſorders, abuſes, and uſurpations, which had crept into ſome regiments, and called ſeveral negligent or rapacious commanders to a ſevere account.

* The empreſs Elizabeth in the ſeven-years-war gave a company the name of the Schuvalof-corps. — The regiments formerly never took their names from a general, but always from a town or province. Latterly ſome exceptions have been made to this rule.

By

By the entirely new arrangement adopted for the army in 1764, the colonels acquired much more authority than before, and at the ſame time the opportunity for making conſiderable advantage, eſpecially in the cavalry *. Some people expreſſed great ſurpriſe at this; but without reaſon, for the colonels were ſtill under the ſame reſponſibility as before; and the crown which had been formerly obliged to pay very dear for many of the neceſſaries belonging to the regiments, ſaved great ſums of money by the new regulation. — Under the empreſs Elizabeth many young colonels, who had intereſt at court, frequently got a great deal by it, or allowed their ſoldiers all manner of licence. Previous to the ſeven-years-war four regiments were particularly notorious, and many towns were terrified on hearing that either of them were to be quartered there, and would raiſe a ſum of money to be free from ſuch gueſts. In the late

* This was done by the purchaſe of horſes, forage, and other neceſſaries, particularly when the cavalry were not completely mounted. — However, theſe are matters with which we have nothing to do. We ſhall only juſt mention, that many had rather always remain colonels than be appointed generals, as in that caſe they loſe their regiment. Only brigadiers remain as colonels with their regiments.

reign

reign none of these disorders happened, as the empress was extremely anxious and took care to provide that the subjects should neither be molested in their houses nor their business by the quartering of soldiers, and which she caused to be expressly inculcated in the articles of war.

In general it may be affirmed, that no army in Europe proportionately costs so little as the russian *, and that no soldier in Europe can subsist

* The first equipment of a dragoon costs 17 rubles $45\frac{13}{45}$ kopeeks, and afterwards yearly 7 rubles $29\frac{27}{120}$ kopeeks. However, for the first, some articles furnished from the commissariat are not included, such as saddle, bridle, &c. nor horse, forage, standing, and keep. — Concerning the pay of the officers, it must be observed, 1. that the officers of the garrison-regiments in the towns of the Baltic have double the pay of other garrison-regiments; 2. that the officers of all marching regiments have three times the pay of the officers of the regiments in the provinces; 3. that the private men in the guards have double the pay of those in the marching regiments.

A general field-marshal is allowed per annum 7000 rubles 200 rations, valued at 1140 rubles and 16 denshiks or servants.

	Rubles.	Rations.		Rubles.	Densh.
A general in chief -	3600	80	=	456	12
A lieutenant-general -	2160	50	=	285	10
A major-general - -	1800	40	=	228	8
A brigadier - - -	840	20	=	171	7

In the marching regiments a colonel is allowed yearly 600 rubles, for rations 96 rubles 90 kopeeks and 6 denshiks or servants.

A lieu-

ſubſiſt on ſo little pay as the ruſſian *. — The annual expenditure for the ſupport of the army will be touched upon occaſionally in the following ſection.

	Rubles.		Rubl.	Kop.	Denſh.
A lieutenant-colonel	360.	For rations,	62	70	4
A major - - -	300.	——	62	70	3
A captain - - -	180.	——	28	50	2
A lieutenant - -	120.	——	22	80	1
A ſecond lieutenant	84.	——	17	10	1
An enſign - - -	84.	——	17	10	1
A quarter maſter of a regiment - -	84.	——	22	80	1
An adjutant - -	120.	——	22	80	1

From this table, and the paragraph immediately preceding it, we may find out the pay of the officers belonging to the regiments in the garriſons and governments. — A private man is allowed yearly 10 rubles 98 kopeeks, beſides three barrels of meal, a certain quantity of griſt or coarſe oatmeal, 24 pounds of ſalt, and fleſh to the value of 72 kopeeks: all theſe articles are computed at 5 rubles 74 kopeeks. But 6 rubles 35 kopeeks are deducted from the pay of every private man for clothing, medicines, fleſh, cartridges, and repairing of firelocks. His whole clothing from head to foot coſts near 12 rubles. — The denſhiks are taken out of the recruits to attend on the officers: and for the ſupport of every one of theſe, 11 rix dollars and $2\frac{1}{2}$ kopeeks are paid annually out of the military cheſt; but the maſters are obliged to clothe them.

* What other european ſoldier will ſubſiſt on an annual pay not amounting to more than 7 or 8 rubles, or when in garriſon only half that ſum, and with the nicely weighed allowance of grits and flour?

SECTION II.

Of the Navy.

RUSSIA is poſſeſſed of ſeveral fleets, entirely diſtinct from each other. She has one in the Baltic, and another in the Euxine: the former under the admiralty of St. Peterſburg; but not the latter, which, therefore, cannot in any point of view be conſidered as only a diviſion of the other; and by an eſpecial ukaſe, on account of its diſtance, has its own high-admiral, who was prince Potemkin. To theſe muſt be added a third, the galley-fleet, whoſe chief was the prince of Naſſau-Siegen, but immediately under the empreſs. — All the three fleets were in actual ſervice during the laſt war.

The emperor Peter I. was creator of the ruſſian fleet. Before his reign the Ruſſians had, indeed, ſmall veſſels for mercantile or tranſport ſervice, which they navigated along the coaſts and on the rivers; but they were ſuch wretched things as we ſtill ſee in ſome places on the rivers between Kola and Archangel, &c. no iron is uſed in their conſtruction, not even a ſingle nail. Armed veſſels, much leſs ſhips of war, were at that time not known in Ruſſia. But that great monarch

monarch travelled into foreign countries for the ſake of learning a better method of building ſhips, and of introducing it into his empire. He raiſed a maritime force *, and cauſed a ſet of regulations to be printed for the eſtabliſhment of a navy. Since his deceaſe the government has not always beſtowed the ſame degree of attention on the fleet.

In the year 1741 it conſiſted of 23 ſhips of the line, 9 frigates, 3 bomb-ketches, 7 prames, and 80 new-built gallies.

In 1757 they could only count 21 line of battle ſhips, (ſome of which were in very bad condition,) 6 frigates, 2 bomb-ketches, 2 prames, 2 fire-ſhips, and 90 gallies. — The crews for the whole fleet, including the gallies, were computed at 20,239 men, which, however, (as uſual,) were not complete.

In the year 1781 they had 34 ſhips of war, but their number was to be increaſed to 54 †. Whether ſo many firſt-rates, without the frigates, were always kept up in time of peace;

* Mr. Coxe is of opinion, that the ſeas belonging to the empire produced the fleet, though not ſufficient exerciſe for the ſailors: but experience has ſhewn this to be a miſtake.

† The ſame author mentions them to have had in the year 1778 38 ſhips of the line, 15 frigates, 4 prames, and 109 gallies.

alſo

alſo whether at the commencement of the laſt war (as ſome were frequently laid by as old and unfit for ſervice) ſo many were actually in being for the Baltic, I cannot determine. That Ruſſia had conſiderable fleets, forming together a very reſpectable naval force, every one knows from the ſeveral actions that have taken place in the Baltic and in the Black ſea, or may be ſeen from the following curſory view *.

The BALTIC FLEET, at the breaking out of the war in 1788, was of ſtrength ſufficient to defeat the aims of the ſwediſh navy, by coming off victorious in an engagement. The force off Hochland conſiſted of 30 ſail, whereof 17 were of the line, (one of 108 guns, the reſt of 74 and 64,) together carrying 1228 cannons, and 7 large frigates. But at that time ſome men of war had ſailed to Copenhagen, and 6 lay at Archangel nearly ready for ſea. Accordingly, we muſt not limit the whole fleet to that number †; beſides, all the ſhips were not ſent out.

On their appearing at ſea again in the following year 1789 they were ſtated by ſome to con-

* It will not be deemed ſuperfluous, as no book that I know of delivers a ſatisfactory account of the ruſſian navy.

† Gatterer, in his Abriſs der Geographie, p. 326, where he probably means only the Baltic fleet, ſets it down at 30 or 40 ſhips of the line, and in all about 180 ſail.

fiſt of 33 line of battle ſhips, without reckoning thoſe which went to the galley fleet under vice-admiral Kruſe: for, at the ſea fight (if the mere cannonading of ſome ſhips may be ſo called) the ruſſian fleet, according to their own account, conſiſted of 20 ſhips of the line, with ſome frigates and ſmaller veſſels; others ſpoke of 22 firſt-rates and 6 frigates. Preſently afterwards they were conſiderably reinforced by the coming up of the afore-mentioned ſhips from Kiœger bay.

But they were all this while at work in the yards of Cronſtadt, Peterſburg, and Archangel, in making a conſiderable addition to the fleet. For it is well known that from autumn 1788 to the ſummer of 1789, at Peterſburg and Cronſtadt the following men of war were built: 3 of 100 guns, 4 other ſhips of the line, (all of oak and ſheathed with copper,) 3 chebecks of 36 guns, 6 ſchooners of 28 guns, with ſeveral gallies * and gun-boats. But at the concluſion of the year 1789 twenty ſhips of war quite new lay ready at Archangel †. Without theſe the fleet at

* Some of the journals affirmed, that almoſt all the gallies were new-built; but they were wrongly informed, as ſeveral of the old were retained for ſervice.

† This is ſtated on the authority of a ſea officer of great credibility, who was at Archangel in the year 1789, and frequently

at ſea on the 26th of May 1790 conſiſted of 30 ſhips of the line and 18 frigates.

The FLEET IN THE BLACK SEA was already very conſiderable when the late empreſs was at Taurida, ſo as to excite in her a very agreeable ſurpriſe. — In the year 1787 it conſiſted of about 18 ſhips of the line, that is, 12 at Sevaſtopol and 6 at Kherſon *, of 24 frigates, 6 gun-boats, and a great number of tranſports. In 1789 the fleet in actual ſervice was 11 line of battle ſhips and ſeveral large frigates. In 1790 it is mentioned in the Hamburgh gazette as compoſed of 12 men of war of the line, a great number of frigates, gallies, chebecks, and gun-boats, with 200 flat-bottomed veſſels. — The fleet in the Liman was compoſed of 35 ſail in the year 1788, but on account of the ſhallows there had no large ſhips.

In the Archipelago there were only 3 ſhips in the year 1789, namely 1 frigate of 36 guns, another of 20, and 1 chebeck of 16.

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frequently kept watch on board thoſe new ſhips. — Perhaps it might be for want of ſailors that they were not already in the Baltic.

* It is well known that ſuch large ſhips of war can neither be built nor employed there as in the Baltic, from the want of ſufficient depth of water in many places.

But Ruſſia has alſo raiſed a flotilla on the Bogue and on the Dniepr, not far from Bender. At the end of the year 1789 it conſiſted already of 40 ſchooners, of 6 to 12 guns; but in the ſpring of 1790 they were 100 complete.

The GALLEY FLEET came into notice again by the ſea fight in the year 1789. — Peter I. had made uſe of this fleet in his war againſt Sweden, as did afterwards the empreſs Elizabeth on a like occaſion. — That in the ſummer of 1789 it did not conſiſt entirely of new gallies, but that ſeveral of the old were retained for ſervice * has been already mentioned. In the engagement of the $\frac{1}{2}\frac{3}{4}$th of Auguſt, the number of all the veſſels belonging to this fleet, great and ſmall, was reported at 110, which was pretty near the truth; for, by the account of an officer, who was then on board the fleet, the frigates, gallies, gun-boats, &c. all together were 104; though, for various reaſons, all were not in the engagement, and therefore the victory ought not to be aſcribed to the ſuperiority of numbers. Beſides, the ſwediſh fleet had taken a very advantageous poſition among the iſlands, and blocked up the paſſage where they apprehended an attack. On which account it cauſed the ruſ-

* Some were found to be utterly unſerviceable, and ſent back to St. Peterſburg.

ſian

ſian fleet ſo much trouble to come at them: however, they ſurmounted all difficulties, and gained the well-known deciſive victory *. In the year following, 1790, they appeared in much greater force at ſea.

The admiralty is at Peterſburg, with a high admiral at its head, which place was held by the grand duke for many years. As an imperial college it belongs to a following article. — That the fleet in the Euxine or Black ſea is not under its cognizance has been already remarked.

The Baltic fleet in the year 1789, beſides its high admiral and ſome other officers of eminence, had 1 admiral, (in 1786 there were three,) 4 vice-admirals, and 5 contre-admirals; amongſt whom ſuch admirals and vice-admirals are not compriſed as were appointed to the galley-haven, the marine-cadet-corps, or as general pay-maſters, general-commiſſaries at war, &c.

* Had the plan ſucceeded to its full extent, ſcarcely one ſhip belonging to the Swedes would have eſcaped. The attack was begun with impetuoſity from behind, in order to force the paſſage that had been blocked up, which was likewiſe ſucceſsfully accompliſhed. A ſlighter attack was to have been made in front, where, as the Swedes had left there an open paſſage, they would have been cut off from all means of ſaving themſelves by flight. The latter met with ſome impediments that have never yet been ſpecified or explained.

To inſert the regulation of Peter I. relating to the rank and pay of the admirals and officers, &c. of his fleet, with all the alterations it has hitherto undergone, would only ſwell our pages without being of any utility. A few ſhort notices will amply ſuffice. In regard to rank:

The high admiral has the rank and pay of a general field-marſhal in the army. An admiral has thoſe of a general in chief. A vice-admiral thoſe of a lieutenant-general. A contre-admiral thoſe of a major-general.

The captains in the navy were divided by Peter I. into three claſſes: to thoſe of the firſt claſs he gave the rank of colonel; to thoſe of the ſecond, the rank of lieutenant-colonel; and to thoſe of the third claſs that of major. There were ſtill the captain-commanders, to whom he aſſigned the rank of a brigadier. At preſent we never hear of a captain of the third claſs; the rank is allotted as follows:

The captain-commander has the rank of a brigadier in the army. The captain of the firſt claſs the rank of a colonel. The captain of the ſecond claſs that of a lieutenant-colonel. The captain-lieutenant that of premier-major. The lieutenant has the rank of a captain in the army, and the midſhipman that of a lieutenant.

The

The firſt captain ſometimes gets the rank of a major-general, without being therefore raiſed to a contre-admiral, as was the caſe with our countryman Mr. Gibbs, who ſtands in the liſts as "captain of the fleet with the rank of major-general," with ſome others, as Melnikof, Odintzof, &c.

The pay of the general-admiral or high admiral per annum is 7000 rubles. That of an admiral 3600; a vice-admiral 2160; a contre-admiral 1800; a captain-commander 840; a lieutenant 200, and a midſhipman 120 rubles. — It is here to be remarked, that the officers are alſo allowed dentſchiks *, or ſervants, namely, a lieutenant 2, and the reſt in proportion. Likewiſe when they are at ſea the officers are allowed table-money, viz. in the Baltic each officer monthly 7 rubles, and the captain ſomewhat more. On long voyages this allowance is increaſed †. — Formerly every captain was preſented by the crown with a ſervice of ſilver-plate; but this cuſtom has been long left off.

* It has before been mentioned that theſe ſervants are taken from the recruits. When the government is apprehenſive of burdening too much the empire by frequent and numerous levies, the naval officer ſometimes muſt be content with fewer, and even with no dentſchiki at all.

† In the Archipelago, if I am not miſtaken, in the turkiſh war of 1770, the monthly allowance was 12 rubles.

It ſcarcely need be mentioned, that the officers not only take precedence according to their rank, but whenever that is equal, it is ſettled by ſeniority *. Thus, for inſtance, eſpecially on board of large ſhips where there are ſeveral lieutenants together, the elder may give orders to the younger. — A captain-lieutenant can only have the command of a frigate. — On board of ſhip the navy-officer has the command over the land-officer, even in caſes where the latter is of higher rank †.

The ſailors are divided into 2 claſſes: to the firſt belong the experienced, at 18 rubles per annum each; but thoſe of the ſecond claſs have only 12. But we are very lately aſſured, that the tertial ‡ of each of the firſt claſs is only 3

* He that is older in the ſervice cannot without affront be ordered by a younger, but when they come together the latter muſt reſign the command to the former.

† Some officers of the army unacquainted with this, and what is more, ſome officers of the guards, who were on board the galley-fleet in the year 1789, expreſſed at firſt great aſtoniſhment and took umbrage at it. The latter, particularly, thought that nobody but the empreſs could put them under arreſt. But an order ſoon came from court that taught them better.

‡ Inſtead of quarterly payments, as uſual in England, all officers and placemen in Ruſſia, whether civil, military, naval, or eccleſiaſtical, receive their pay by tertials, that is, at three ſtated times in the year.

rubles

rubles 60 kopeeks, and that thoſe of the ſecond receive no more than 2 rubles 50 kopeeks, which amounts annually for the firſt to 10 rubles 30 kopeeks, and for the latter to 7 rubles 50 kopeeks*. Moreover, they are fed while at ſea; but when on ſhore each receives his ordinary proviſion, as in the land ſervice. — The ſailors are not left without hopes of promotion, as the ſeveral offices and poſts about the ſhip are conferred upon them according to their good behaviour. Any one who knows how to write has a chance of being advanced to be ſkipper, in which capacity he has the care of the ſails, cordage, &c. and at the ſame time is raiſed to the rank of a captain in the army, (but never higher,) and yet remains ſkipper as before. — The children of the ſailors and marines are kept at ſchool, and at length promoted to ſteerſmen, with which they likewiſe may have the rank of captain in the army, but without, therefore, lay-

* This account is from the mouth of a very credible naval officer; but, as it has been advanced by ſome travellers, that the ſailors receive 15 rubles monthly, it muſt be obſerved, that this ought not to be underſtood of the ordinary pay: only ſome free people, who came and offered themſelves to ſerve on board the galley-fleet, received monthly from 8 to 15 rubles. Even the turkiſh priſoners, who were in Peterſburg, tempted by this great pay, offered to ſerve in the galley-fleet.

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ing down the poſt of a ſteerſman. — To a ſhip of 100 guns the crew is uſually reckoned at 1000 men, in which are included ſailors, marines, (who are commonly called battalions,) and the engineers*. But the crews are not always complete.

The harbours for the fleet have been already mentioned, nothing more therefore need here be ſaid of them. — The expence attending the maintenance of the navy was formerly eſtimated at about 1,200,000 rubles: in regard to which we are to conſider that many articles are very cheap in Ruſſia, and that the crews are paid much leſs wages than in other countries, particularly in England. At preſent, as a greater number of fleets are kept up, and as they conſiſt of far more ſhips than formerly, the coſt muſt be exceedingly increaſed.

Ruſſia had formerly no more than two dock-yards, thoſe of Peterſburg and Archangel, to which have latterly been added thoſe of Kherſon, Cronſtadt, and Taurida. The ſhip-yard at Kherſon was abſolutely neceſſary while there was

* The ſwediſh officers who were taken priſoners in the year 1790, confeſſed that the ruſſian fleet had excellent artillery. Their own fleet was in want of artilleriſts; and therefore their cannon did far leſs injury than the ruſſian.

no

no better place at which to build ſhips for the Euxine: but the ſituation is rather inconvenient, not only becauſe timber there muſt be procured at a very high price, but alſo chiefly becauſe large ſhips cannot without difficulty be brought acroſs the Liman; for which purpoſe they muſt be entirely unloaded and diſmaſted. The harbours of Taurida afford far more commodious places for dock-yards.

At Peterſburg and Cronſtadt the men of war are conſtructed of oak, tranſported thither from the regions of Kazan at a great expence. Indeed, in ſeveral diſtricts much nearer ſingle oak-trees are found; in Lettland and in Eſthonia, particularly in the circle of Hapſal, even oak-foreſts, but they are ſmall, whereas thoſe of Kazan and Voronetch are of pretty large growth. Tzar Peter I. ordered them to be carefully ſpared and encouraged for the purpoſes of ſhip-building. Accordingly foreſters were appointed, who had diſcharged ſoldiers under them: but theſe people were a great plague to the inhabitants, and committed all manner of exceſſes amongſt them *;

* For inſtance, they threw oak-boughs into the court-yards of the Tartars, and then accuſed them of having cut down oaks; or bones of pork, and charged them with having kept hogs, which is prohibited by the mohammedan religion, &c.

for

for which reaſon they were aboliſhed in the year 1762 *. However, every land-owner is careful of his oaks, as he can always get a good price for them. In Peterſburg every pood of oak-timber, including the expence of tranſport, ſells for 15 to 25 kopeeks.

At Archangel the ſhips are built of the wood of the larch-tree †, which is very cheap; a quantity ſufficient for the conſtruction of a ſhip of 60 guns coſts there, if purchaſed with integrity and caution, about 3000 rubles, and perhaps ſomewhat more. But for particular parts of the veſſel oak-timber is uſed, which is alſo brought thither from the precincts of Kazan ‡.

* Buſching, in the earlier editions of his Geography, mentions a foreſter ſtill in 1770 in the diſtrict of Kazan; it is poſſible that there might be one, but the office was aboliſhed in 1762.

† Some german writers are of opinion that if the larch afford not better timber than the oak, it is at leaſt as good; this I leave undecided, but I doubt it very much. At times the fir is uſed with the larch in conſiderable quantities.

‡ Mr. Buſching, in the laſt edition of his Geography, commits a ſlight miſtake in ſaying that at Archangel the ſhips are built of the oak-timber growing there. No oaks at all grow there, as I have been uniformly told by officers belonging to the yard, as well as by our worthy countryman the late Mr. Yeames, who was maſter-ſhip-builder there for many years.

Though

Though oak-timber is ſo dear at Peterſburg, yet 20 years ago enough for a ſhip of 80 guns might be had for only about 10,000 rubles; and the fir-timber for a light veſſel (ketch, pink, or yacht) capable of carrying from 20 to 30 cannons, about 900 rubles. But, from the great conſumption of it ſince, waſte, neglect, and other cauſes, the price of it now is greatly raiſed; the timbers for one of theſe light veſſels can perhaps hardly be got by the crown for 2000 rubles. A half-chebeck completely finiſhed coſts it now about 12,000; but a ſhip of the line of 100 guns fully equipped, at leaſt 100,000 rubles*, or even more.

It

* This, however, is only to be underſtood of the laſt war: formerly every thing was much cheaper, as the crown employed its own people as workmen; but ſince, by reaſon of the great increaſe of buſineſs, it is obliged to hire ſtrangers, who, according to their capacities receive wages unheard of at the yards there. It was well known however, and the empreſs knew it herſelf, that great impoſitions were practiſed in making the contracts, and in many other particulars. It was this that occaſioned admiral ſir Charles Knowles, while he was in that country to tell her majeſty, that the expence and waſte was ſuch, that if her whole empire was made of wood, the people at the yards would find means to conſume it all and ruin her exchequer beſides; adding, that he would engage to fetch all the materials for ſhip-building from Ruſſia, pay the duties upon them, and deliver

It has been more than once obſerved by former writers, that the oak-timber of Ruſſia and of the north, in general, is not ſo durable as in other countries. This however is not aſſented to by others, who affirm that probably negligence and want of attention, in concurrence with the freſh water of the Neva, may greatly contribute to a premature corruption *; for they aſſert it to

deliver to her from England ſhips completely equipped at much leſs coſt than they ſtood her in at her own dock-yards. — Among other rumours it was ſaid that a certain chancery had formerly given in a report that the ſtores in the magazines were ſpoilt; having received the wiſhed-for order to ſell them all to the public, certain perſons of that office, by means of their confidents, bought all the beſt at a very low price; then, by a podrad (contract) with the ſame chancery, ſtruck a bargain for new deliveries, and ſent back to the magazines the very materials at a very high price which they had declared to be ſpoilt. — Of numberleſs impoſitions of the ſame nature Catharine II. had too much ſagacity not to be aware; but ſhe did not know rightly how to help herſelf: ſhe conſidered them as things of a like nature have been conſidered in other countries, as the cheeſe-parings and candle-ends of a great buttery. — Many a cable and many an anchor have been loſt and ſupplied in the firſt port after leaving Cronſtadt in a favouring breeze, and many a ſuit of ſails has been blown away in extremely fine weather.

* They think particularly that ſome of the fault may lie in the choice of the timber and in the working it up; the latter

to be a well-known fact, that if oak-timber be felled with due precaution and at the proper ſeaſon, then ſet to dry in the ſhade and under cover, and laſtly laid for a time in ſalt-water to ſoak, it acquires its due degree of durability. The admiralty has not been inattentive to this important object, by propoſing a premium to the beſt literary productions upon it *. The freſh-water † cannot poſſibly be avoided while Cronſtadt is the only ſafe and ſpacious harbour for the fleet. Were Roggervyk ‡ in Eſthonia put into a proper condition it would no longer need

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latter is done perhaps too haſtily and without proper inſpection: the former being delivered by podrad, the ſeller very eaſily finds means for hood-winking the receiver. It has not unfrequently happened that ſhips immediately after the launch have been pronounced unſerviceable.

* One of theſe was obtained by paſtor Graſſman in the year 1779 for his diſſertation on the long duration of ſhip-timber; on which ſubject he publiſhed a larger work in 1790.

† Admiral Knowles ſaid that the freſh-water of the Neva was leſs injurious to the ſhips than a number of ſalt-water tricks that he could mention.

‡ The unſurmountable obſtacles which the late empreſs met with in the proſecution of this grand and expenſive undertaking, made her reſolve on abandoning the project in the year 1788.

to

to lie in freſh-water. — Some think it probable that at Reval* a better harbour than that of Cronſtadt might be had, in regard to the water, if only half the money were to be laid out upon it that has been expended at Roggervyk. — Perhaps it would be poſſible to make a good harbour in the bay towards Vyborg.

In regard to the ſhip-yards it remains to be mentioned, that the ſhips at Peterſburg and Archangel are built in docks, and then launched from the ſtocks, by which method a ſhip is liable to ſuffer great damage†; whereas at Cronſtadt, when the ſhip is ready, water is let into the canal, and it floats out without any poſſibility of hurt. — The dock-yards at Archangel are not in the town, but at 5 verſts diſtance

* It was rumoured at St. Peterſburg that propoſals had been made for enlarging the harbour at Reval. Undoubtedly it might be enlarged, and at no very enormous expence: but the queſtion is, whether it would afford a proper ſecurity againſt ſtorms. There is one difficulty at Reval as well as at Cronſtadt, that the ſea in the ſpring is rather late in being freed from ice. This prevents the ſhips from running out early. The caſe is very different at Roggervyk.

† This happened not many years ſince to a frigate at Archangel, as ſhe was launching ſhe broke her back and then beat in one of her bows by running againſt the pier, ſo that ſhe was obliged to undergo a thorough repair.

from it on an iſland in the Dvina, named Solombol *, pretty large and inhabited by people that belong to the yards; but all the houſes are of timber, though two ſtories high, on account of the frequent inundations to which it is ſubject in the ſpring. Oppoſite to it, on the other ſide of the river, dwell the pilots. Ships that are ready, and yet are not immediately ordered to ſea, as it would be impoſſible for them to winter in the river on account of the current of ice at its breaking up, are conducted 30 verſts higher up, where they have a ſort of harbour between the iſlands †. There is a kind of fort with a garriſon; but without that, its ſituation, and the parts adjacent, and the nature of the channel, render it ſecure enough againſt any hoſtile attempts. At this place too always lie a great number of tranſport-veſſels, for carrying cannons, ſtores, proviſions, &c. to the men of war, when they are to be fitted out for ſea, from the magazines at Archangel. The complete equipment, however, cannot be done there, nor nearer than 70 verſts

* Buſching calls it Solombal, and not an iſland, but a part of the town of Archangel. A very trifling error, only juſt worth this notice.

† Probably this is the place which Buſching calls Lapominka.

from Solombol, in the diſtrict where the light-houſe ſtands. To that place the ſhip muſt be conducted by pilots, becauſe the proper channel, notwithſtanding the breadth of the river, is extremely narrow and abounds in ſhoals; and there is particularly a large ſand-bank which requires very nice management. All things conſidered therefore the conſtruction and equipment of men of war are here attended with many inconveniences; to which is ſtill to be added, that by the inundations which occaſionally ariſe on the iſland many of the materials and ſtores are carried away and loſt, or great damages are otherwiſe ſuſtained by the crown. — But how different from all this is Cronſtadt *.

Though Ruſſia has always had a fleet throughout the preſent century, yet whether from want of opportunity or want of management, it never diſplayed its force and conſequence under any of the former reigns †. But the navy under Catharine

* Of which we have given a ſufficient deſcription already, vol. i. p. 228.

† It has been affirmed by eye-witneſſes, who ſerved in the war of Finland, in the reign of the empreſs Elizabeth, that the galley-fleet was at that time very inactive againſt the Swedes, frequently being at a loſs to know what to do, retreating ſometimes with timidity, and cautiouſly avoiding all

Catharine II. in the two laſt wars againſt the Turks and in that againſt the Swedes, manifeſted to the world what it could do, and with what brave people it was manned. The conceit that they were not trained till the war of 1770, is confuted by the tranſactions of that period. For the ruſſian fleet did not then gradually learn to gain a battle, but ſet out at once by defeating an enemy with a far greater number of ſhips, and ſhortly afterwards annihilated his navy *. The fleet with oars was not indeed brought out in the former of the two turkiſh wars, and yet was able to bid defiance to Sweden in regard to experienced ſeamen.

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all poſſibility of coming to an engagement; till general Keith bore down amongſt them and brought them into order. To which they added, that many of the officers betrayed the moſt conſummate ignorance in maritime affairs.

* The notion that foreign officers have had the greater ſhare in every ſignal tranſaction is nothing to the purpoſe: for they have never been commanders in chief; and even if that had been the caſe they could have done but little if the fleet were in bad condition. As they were navigating ſeas where the ruſſian flag had never before been diſplayed, it was ſurely neceſſary to provide themſelves with foreign officers who were acquainted with thoſe ſeas.

As the empreſs, even in the midſt of peace, was always building new ſhips of war at various places, which only waited for crews for being able to appear at ſea, ſeveral of them were kept ever in readineſs at Archangel; and as, beſides, two navies were then maintained, of the Baltic and the Euxine, it was difficult to aſcertain the preciſe number of all the men of war from private accounts. However, Beaufort * greatly exaggerates the matter, by affirming that Ruſſia, in the year 1787, had a marine conſiſting of 100 ſhips of the line. Not even about the years 1790 and 1791, though at that time all the ſhipyards were fully employed, could ſhe number ſo many, even ſhould we take into the account the large frigates which might act with thoſe of the line. For, according to an authentic ſtatement made by ſeveral eye-witneſſes, there lay in the year 1791, to be ready in caſe of emergency, not far from Cronſtadt 32 ſhips of the line, and 10 large frigates which were capable of being placed in the line, with all the neceſſary tranſports †, and a row-fleet conſiſting of 240 gallies;

* In his Grand portefeuille politique.

† The Hamburg gazettes of 1791 ſpeak of 33 line of battle ſhips, (among them 5 of 100 guns) 16 frigates, and 24 cutters.

all

all excellently equipped and manned: beſides ſeveral men of war that were left behind unrigged in the mole of Cronſtadt, and ſome entirely new at Archangel. But at that time it appeared by the Peterſburg-gazette, that in the laſt engagement with the Turks July 31, 1791, there were in the Euxine 16 ſhips, 2 frigates, 2 bomb-ketches, 1 repeating tranſport, 1 fire-ſhip, and 17 cruizers. At the ſame time in the Archipelago, by the Hamburg-gazette, the ruſſian fleet conſiſted of 12 ſhips, which it is well known were not of the line *.

In 1795 the fleet fitted out at Cronſtadt to cruiſe in the Baltic conſiſted of 6 ſhips of 100 guns; 10 of 74 guns, 3 of 66 guns, 6 frigates, and 2 cutters. The auxiliary fleet ſent to England by the empreſs was compoſed of 4 ſhips of 74 guns, 8 of 66 guns, 6 frigates, and 2 cutters.

The ſtate of the ruſſian fleet at Sevaſtopol in the ſpring of 1796, after all the old veſſels had been condemned, was as follows:

* What figure this force, accuſtomed to encounter the ſwediſh fleet, would have made againſt that which the cabinet of London threatened to ſend into the Baltic, muſt be now left entirely to conjecture.

1	ſhip of 90 guns - - - - -	90
1	—— 80 - - - - - -	80
3	—— 74 - - - - - -	222
6	—— 64 - - - - - -	384
11	ſhips of the line	776
8	large frigates	362
19	Total	1,138 guns

beſides thoſe on the ſtocks, which are now finiſhed.

The flotilla at Odiſſa, or Khogia-bay, conſiſted altogether of 25 very large and 60 veſſels of inferior magnitude to be uſed as tranſport-veſſels for conveying the troops.

Theſe veſſels are ſixty-four to ſeventy feet in length, draw ſix feet water when loaded, and carry one very large cannon. They are rigged with a lattin ſail and jib, and are provided with twenty-four oars; beſides theſe, there are in theſe ports a great number of other tranſports, bomb-ketches, ſchooners, brigs, &c.

VIEW

OF THE

RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

BOOK VII.

REVENUES OF THE EMPIRE.

IT is no wonder if foreigners entertain miſtaken notions of the revenues of Ruſſia, ſince in the country itſelf they are not to be accurately aſcertained, not even in the office of the treaſurer-general *. Becauſe the ſums which are there brought to account are only a part, though a very conſiderable part of them.

The empire has ſources which though extremely productive do not properly come under the head of the ſtated revenue, but principally

* Nor was any imperial high-treaſurer appointed; the general-procureur, prince Vaſemſky, always executed that office.

belong to proprietary eaſtabliſhments. For, 1. the nett incomes flow into various places and departments, where they cannot be accurately eſtimated: ſome directly into the empreſs's own privy purſe; for inſtance, the profits ariſing from the ſilver-mines of Kolhyvan and Nertſchinſk, which belong to the crown; others go to the college of war, others again to the medical college, &c. 2. Many particular incomes (or which are properly regarded as ſuch) are aſſigned in perpetuity inſtead of pay, therefore in ſome meaſure cannot be calculated, as not being carried to account not even in the high-treaſurer's office; for inſtance, the beneficial fiſhery of the river Ural granted to the ural Kozaks. 3. Some conſiſt in deliveries in kind, which are either not valued at all or charged at a very low price. Of this ſort are the arende-corn * of the crown-lands, and the rations of corn and hay from all private and public eſtates; the latter is, indeed, compenſated by the poll-

* Arendator, or arrendator, in Livonia, Eſthonia, &c. is a farmer of the farms, that is, he contracts with the crown for the rents of the farms; crown-arendator is one who rents an eſtate belonging to the crown. By the term arende is implied both the eſtate that is let out and the ſum for which it is let. Arende-corn is corn paid as rent by admodiation.

tax,

tax *, but the crown has nevertheleſs conſiderable profit out of it. 4. Many provinces and diſtricts, in lieu of all or ſome public taxes, perform certain ſervices, which are never calculated among the revenues, but, by thoſe who would give the real amount of them, muſt neceſſarily be conſidered as equivalent to money. Thus, all the Don-kozaks, with the various diſtinct branches of them, beſides other immunities granted them, pay no public impoſts whatever, but in return perform military ſervice. The Tepterey, conſiſting of Tartars, Tſchuvaſches, and Tſcheremiſſes, who in the province of Ufa are numbered at upwards of 30,000 heads, pay but a very trifling capitation tax; but they are in conſideration of that, obliged to furniſh the crown with carriages for the tranſport of the rock-ſalt of Iletzk †. At the mines of Kolhyvano-voſkreſenſk 48,000 crown-boors execute certain works inſtead of their poll-tax; but neither their labour nor their head-money can be entered in the accounts of the high-trea-

* The occupier receives of the crown in the compenſation for a tſchetvert of rye, which in 1789 was worth more than 8 rubles, only two rubles, and muſt beſides carry it ſometimes 120 or 180 miles to Riga. How much would it coſt the crown if it had to buy up the rye in the country, and convey it thither by hired carters?

† Pallas, travels, tom. i. p. 17.

ſurer's

ſurer's office as incomings. 5. Some tribes pay their tribute, at leaſt partly, in furs or in hides. Theſe latter are for the army-conſumption, and therefore cannot be entered in any money-account. 6. Many incomings are ſubject to great fluctuations, ſuch as the duties, the produce of the mines, &c. 7. With others, after deducting the coſts and charges, which properly come under the head of expenditure, the bare profit is received, as at particular mine-works, the copper coinage, &c. but with others not: accordingly great uncertainty muſt ariſe in the calculation. 8. Certain products which the crown receives from its domains, as, marble and precious ſtones; alſo certain wrought goods for the army and navy, as, cannon-balls from the mineries, are not claſſed among the articles of income, though they certainly are of that nature. 9. Conſiderable ſavings, which in other countries cannot be made, ought to be regarded as income, for example, the low pay of the ſoldiers and ſailors, with many other things and peculiarities of the ſame kind, which to avoid prolixity muſt be omitted *; which, however,

* Thus, only to bring one example, in the ruſſian army there is no camp-bakery: every ſoldier is his own baker. A hole which he digs in the earth, having covered the bottom with a ruſh mat, ſerves him firſt for a kneading-trough, and then for his oven.

ſhould

ſhould be brought into account, or we ſhall be continually liable to miſtake; and even could we get ſight of all the accounts of the treaſury, the mere inſpection of the money paid in would never put us in condition to draw a compariſon between the real revenues of Ruſſia and thoſe of other kingdoms.

We need not, therefore, be ſurprized that foreign writers have eſtimated the ruſſian revenues either very erroneouſly, or extremely different one from another, and that we are to place no confidence in their ſtatements. Some eſtimate them at not more than 10 millions, while others for the year 1788 make them amount to 18. Mr. Buſching proceeds with great caution: he ſpecifies the ſources and the branches of the revenue; but in the former editions of his Geography, he ſtates them in the year 1770 to have been only 16, and in the later editions he ſets them down at 24 millions. This latter ſtatement he ſupports on a very fallacious hypotheſis: he ſays, becauſe the national revenue during the reign of the empreſs Elizabeth amounted to 10 millions *, and the empreſs

* How would it be poſſible to admit this ſtatement as accurate? the maintenance of the army and navy alone would require the whole of it, without mentioning the other great national

empreſs Catharine II. in the preamble to her ukaſe concerning the imperial lombard of the year 1786, declares that without burdening the people it is at preſent more than twice as much as when ſhe aſcended the throne *, he thinks himſelf authoriſed to ſet it down at 24 millions †. But, as we have already ſeen, the opinion, that in the firſt quarter of the preſent century they formed only 9 millions is erroneous, and therefore neither can the adduced 10 millions be properly uſed as a ſtandard. — The Gotha-calendar of 1790 comes ſomewhat nearer the mark by ſtating them at about 35 millions. The like ſum has been adopted by the author of

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national expences. — Frederic II. in his poſthumous works, tom. i. p. 57, eſtimates the revenue of Ruſſia, ſo early as the reign of the empreſs Anna, at between 14 and 15 millions; which ſum may be correct, by taking into account only the ſpecie that flowed into the imperial coffers; but afterwards it is well known to have been greatly increaſed: how then could it have conſiſted of no more than 10 millions in the reign of Elizabeth?

* This the empreſs declares expreſsly, but without aſcertaining how much the revenue amounted to on her acceſſion to her throne. On this latter point the ſtatiſtical problem turns.

† It almoſt ſeems as if Mr. Buſching even had ſome ſcruple in eſtimating the ſum ſo high.

the ſtatiſtic Survey, at the ſame time making the juſt remark, that there are ſtill extraordinary * revenues conſiſting of the gratuitous performance of ſervices and delivery of products; that theſe are not included in the above ſum, and that 10 millions in Ruſſia will go much farther than 30 of equal value would in France. — Mr. Coxe is far more accurate than all thoſe authors, in eſtimating the national revenue of Ruſſia at 41,830,910 rubles, though even this ſum does not reach to the full amount †.

Under ſome few of the former ſovereigns it is impoſſible that the whole revenue ſhould have conſiſted of no more than 9 or 10 millions, as it was not only ſufficient for all the ordinary ex-

* Not for the ſake of cavilling about words, but for ſolid reaſons, the expreſſion here ſeems not to be quite adequate.

† He adds, however, "But it is difficult to conceive "how the empreſs is able to maintain the magnificence of "her court; the number of public inſtitutions; the nume-"rous buildings which are continually erecting at her ex-"pence (1); the liberality with which ſhe encourages the "arts and ſciences; the purchaſes which ſhe is continually "making in every country in Europe, and the immenſe "donations which ſhe confers upon the moſt favoured of "her ſubjects." Travels, vol. iii. p. 347. 8vo. edit.

(1) In time of peace her majeſty allots at leaſt 200,000l. per annum for the purpoſes of building.

penditure,

penditure, but Peter I. Anna, and Elizabeth carried on expenſive wars without incurring any national debt, and at the ſame time executed great public works which coſt immenſe ſums, of which we need only mention the Ladoga-canal and the docks and canals at Cronſtadt. — But Catharine II. executed infinitely more coſtly undertakings, to which enormous ſums were employed. What muſt have been her diſburſements on account of wars, coloniſts, ſumptuous buildings, the erection of new and the embelliſhment of old towns, in monuments, ſeminaries of education extended and increaſed, loan-banks, the ſalaries in the viceroyalties, donations of various kinds, and a thouſand other particulars. Hence we may conclude, that the revenue for her eſtabliſhments muſt have been far greater than formerly, or as the empreſs expreſſed it herſelf, more than twice as much. Indeed ſhe remitted a great many duties or taxes, 47 of them at one time by an ukaſe of March 17, 1775, and afterwards 10 more by an ukaſe of June 28, 1777, conſiſting not of trifles, though even a ſmall impoſt, when paid by numerous ſubjects of a large empire, amounts to a conſiderable ſum; but ſeveral were of conſequence, for inſtance, the tenths of all mines belonging to the ſubjects, together with the taxes on the forges, &c.;

&c.; ſhe likewiſe aboliſhed many of the antient farms, ſuch as, that of the capture of ſea-dogs on the Baikal, and even ſome of the monopolies enjoyed by the crown, for ſuch were formerly among others certain articles of the commerce with China which were reſerved entirely for the caravans of the crown, particularly all ſorts of fine furs, but this entirely ceaſed by imperial command, and the trade was laid open. Yet on the other hand the imperial treaſury was a gainer; for, only to particularize in ſome inſtances, the finances were increaſed, 1. from the acquiſitions and conqueſts; 2. by the great extenſion and encouragement of commerce; 3. by curtailing the eſtates belonging to the biſhops, the monaſteries, and the churches, whereby the crown not only got a great number of boors, with large tracts of arable land and foreſts, but other lucrative matters, as, the ſalt-works near Irkutſk, which formerly belonged to the Voſkreſenſkian-monaſtery, and certain merchants of the place; 4. by raiſing the obrok; 5. by rendering the poll-tax more general, which muſt now be paid by the provinces of the Baltic, of Little Ruſſia, and the antient ſlobodes, which were formerly exempt; 6. by the new duties, in all of which a very conſiderable difference was obſerved; thus, for example, at Reval in

1768,

1768, they amounted only to 17,163 rubles 34½ kopeeks, but in 1787 to 190,198 rubles 56¼ kopeeks; 7. by better regulation at the mines; thus we learn from an authentic ſtatement, that from the mines of Kolhyvan in 1760 only 264 pood of ſilver containing 8 pood of pure gold were ſent to Peterſburg; whereas in 1779 there came 809 pood containing 24 pood of pure gold; 8. by reforms in regard to other impoſts, &c.

It would be mere oſtentation to pretend here to give a ſtrictly accurate or even a ſatisfactory ſtatement of the national revenue *; but we will ſtate it more preciſely than has hitherto been done by any foreigner; not indeed from archival accounts †, nor yet in hypothetical and conjectural

* Thus the treaſurer, as the preſent receiver, in many provinces, has no right to force the people to pay their poll-tax in one entire ſum, or to deliver it at ſtated times, but muſt receive it in whatever portions and at whatever times it is brought.

† No private perſon can expect to get ſummary extracts from all the chanceries that keep account of receipts, or from the treaſurer's office. In many of the chanceries, though not in all, a great myſtery is made of matters which every body might know without danger. Sometimes we meet with perſons who communicate very good accounts, but not one who will tell any thing of his own chancery: whether

tural numbers, but from incontrovertible facts, as delivered by perſons of undoubted veracity on the ſpot. The totals will be found in ſome caſes to refute preconceived opinions, and in others to exceed expectation. — It will be neceſſary, firſt, to inquire from what ſources the revenues flow. Theſe are:

1. The HEAD-MONEY, to which the burghers, (but not merchants,) the odnodvortzi, all ruſſian boors, and various other tribes are ſubject, and from which many, as the Kozaks of the Don, &c. are exempt. It is paid only by male heads, including babes and old men. The numbers found at one reviſion remain unaltered till the next, and muſt be paid by the community for thoſe who in the interim die, elope, fall into poverty, are taken as recruits, &c. The amount of the tax is various according to ſtation and country. For every male head it is commonly per annum for burghers 1 ruble 20 kopeeks,

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whether from a conſcientious regard of their oath, or from the apprehenſion of cenſure, or from being acquainted with certain maxims. The chief of a department is generally the moſt communicative; and a great number of particulars are moſt eaſily learnt by judiciouſly leading the converſation. Therefore, if we cannot produce authentic liſts, we can deliver many things on teſtimony equally valid.

for odnodvortzi 1 ruble, and for all private-boors, and for many of thoſe belonging to the crown 70 kopeeks. All are obliged to every ruble to make an addition of 2 kopeeks. But numbers who are either real boors, or are conſidered as ſuch, pay far more, for inſtance thoſe of the former ſlobode government of the Ukraine, according to the nature of their trade and immunities, ſome 120, ſome 100, ſome 70 kopeeks; thoſe of Ingria 150, but thoſe at the mine-works 170 kopeeks; and if I rightly underſtand one account, the agricultural-boors even 2 rubles. The boors allotted to the court-chancery, in the government of Perme, are obliged to pay ſtill more, namely 2½ rubles, which ſince 1783 has been increaſed by an additional ruble. (One might be almoſt led to imagine, that the head-money is here confounded with the obrok.) The common free people of Livonia and Eſthonia, who are not burghers, pay likewiſe only 70 kopeeks. — Now, it is calculated that there are greatly above 11 millions of boors, and, including the burghers and odnodvortzi, upwards of 12 millions of taxable perſons. If we average them at 72 kopeeks, it will be found to yield a large ſum, though many of them pay their capitation-tax in ſervices or labours inſtead of money. However, the crown

ſuffers

ſuffers many loſſes by the running up of arrears, though all poſſible alleviations are made to the people in the collecting of the tax. Yet there are diſtricts, nay whole governments, where arrears are utterly unknown *, but this will not properly apply to all places. — That many provinces and people who now pay the capitation-tax were formerly exempt from it has been already obſerved. Whether the raſnotſchintzi are ſtill free from it cannot here be determined. But ſome tribes inſtead of this tax pay a tribute in furs. — Formerly the head-money was ſent to the college of war for the ſupport of the army; ſome alteration has probably of late been introduced, and a part of it is employed otherwiſe, as the amount is now much higher than it was at that time.

2. The TAX UPON THE CAPITAL OF MERCHANTS, or, as it is ſometimes called, the percentage. It was firſt introduced into the provinces of the Baltic in the year 1783. The merchant gives up the ſtatement of his capital without compulſion or judicial examination, at his own diſcretion: but according to the amount of it his privileges and immunities in regard to

* In this number there may be comprehended people and nations who pay ſome kind of tribute, or perform ſervice for it: ſome pay only 1 ruble.

commerce, to offices, and outward conſideration, are regulated. Every one pays yearly one per cent. in return for which he and his children are exempt from the poll-tax. None can be a merchant unleſs he ſtates himſelf to have a capital of 500 rubles; but there are many of them who inſcribe themſelves at 50,000, and even a great deal more, and conſequently pay annually from 500 to 1000 rubles.

3. The DOMAIN-LANDS, the income ariſing from which it has already been mentioned, is very various; ſome pay arende-money; or with it, as in Livonia, likewiſe natural products, eſpecially corn, which muſt be dealt out to the troops, or delivered into the crown-magazines. They principally conſiſt in obrok, that is, a money-tax, which the crown-boors, as well as the agricultural boors now belonging to it, (unleſs, as in Livonia, they perform ſoccage ſervice,) are obliged to pay yearly for each male head. In virtue of the ukaſes of January 20, 1765, and November 5, 1768, they paid, "beſides the cuſtomary 7 grievniks, (i. e. 70 kopeeks,) poll-tax for each and ſingular ſoul of the male ſex, according to the numbers taken at the laſt reviſion, a duty (i. e. tax or obrok) annually of 2 rubles." But, on the 3d of May 1783 an order was publiſhed, that "on

"on all imperial, court, and agricultural boors, "as well as on the odnodvortzi and other set- "tlers, which are at the diſpoſal of the œco- "nomy-directors, in lieu of the former 2 ru- "bles, the duty henceforward ſhall be raiſed "to 3 rubles for each male ſoul, and the addi- "tion of 2 kopeeks on every ruble." Some accounts enumerate upwards of 4½ millions of crown and œconomy-boors, and upwards of 700,000 odnodvortzi. The ſum, therefore, ariſing from the obrok may be eaſily calculated. It muſt not, however, be forgotten, that crown-boors are at times emancipated, or their duties aſſigned to the ſalary of governors, &c.

4. The SEA-DUTIES, which indeed depend on circumſtances, and are liable to fluctuations, but are at preſent very conſiderable; whereof the three following ſea-ports alone, by authentic ſummary accounts received from them, may ſerve as a proof. At Riga the duties paid in 1773 amounted to 541,509 rubles 22¼ kopeeks; but in the year 1786 they brought in 748,287 rubles 16¼ kopeeks. — At Reval the raiſed duties produced in the year 1768 only 17,163 rubles 34½ kopeeks; in 1787 they came to 190,198 rubles 56¾ kopeeks, likewiſe 100 alberts-dollars and 77½ kopeeks; in 1788 the duties were 167,236 rubles 13 kopeeks; but

in the year 1789, even 342,079 rubles 36¼ kopeeks; in which of the laſt-mentioned year were not compriſed the 87 rubles 33½ kopeeks that came into the tamojena (cuſtom-houſe) as confiſcation-money, nor the 6688 rubles 54½ kopeeks that were raiſed for the ſupport of the ſchools and the wharfs. — At Peterſburg and Cronſtadt, which two ports are to be conſidered only as one, being both under one cuſtom-houſe, the duties paid in 1787 were almoſt 4 millions, namely, 3,910,006 rubles 17½ kopeeks; whereas in the year 1788 upwards of 4 millions, viz. 4,035,743 rubles 22¼ kopeeks. In the 9 years from 1771 to 1780 excluſive, the comings-in at that cuſtom-houſe, in dollars and ruſſian money, were 16,642,205 rubles 32¾ kopeeks; but in the ſucceeding 9 years, namely from 1780 to 1789 excluſive, they were 28,023,482 rubles 45¼ kopeeks; conſequently, the latter 9 years yielded a ſurplus of more than 11 millions. But, as the ſuperintendant Schemakin had farmed the peterſburg duties, the ſum paid by him for the contract for 9 years was only 13,655,257 rubles 12 kopeeks; accordingly the preſent duties in the laſt 9 years againſt the contract produce a difference of more than 14 millions. As the duties of only three ſea-ports are here ſtated, it is eaſily conceivable

ceivable that of the whole empire it muſt amount annually to a very large ſum; for here no notice is taken of the other ports of the Baltic, and not one of thoſe of the other ſeas has been mentioned. Buſching has not ſpecified the amount, only ſaying, that a commiſſion in the year 1764 found the duties at all the ſeaports and frontier-towns to be 3 millions. Thoſe adduced of three ſeaports ſhew that thoſe 3 millions form no adequate ſtandard for a calculation of the whole at preſent.

5. The LAND-TOLLS, which, though not ſo conſiderable as the laſt-mentioned duties, are yet by no means totally inſignificant; if we only conſider the vicinity, and the trade by land with Courland, Poland, Turkey, China, Bukharia, the Kirghiſes, and other tribes. The orenburg-trade produced, as we already learn from Buſching's geography, in the year 1751, tolls to the amount of 95,123 rubles. But from the trade with China the tolls at Kiachta on exports and imports in 1770 were 550,000 rubles; and in the two following years not much leſs *. A trade with China is likewiſe carried on at another place, viz. Old-Zuruchaitu, where the ſeveral tolls brought in only 500 rubles †.

* Pallas, travels, tom. iii. p. 154.

† Id. ib. p. 429.

6. The duties on LAW-PROCEEDINGS, commonly called poſchlin; of which, to avoid prolixity, we ſhall only obſerve, that for every petition a duty is paid of about 25 kopeeks, with the ſame ſum for ſealing and for the final deciſion, but for a writ of appeal 6 rubles. — Here may be reckoned likewiſe the paſſport money.

7. STAMPED-PAPER, the annual conſumption and amount whereof we are enabled to ſtate from particular chanceries, but not for the whole empire. The price of it has lately been raiſed to double the ſum it was formerly ſold at, and the uſes for which it is neceſſary more accurately aſcertained. At preſent it brings in a conſiderable ſum per annum*.

8. The duty, or poſchlin, on the SALE OF IMMOVABLE PROPERTY, in which are included not only houſes and lands but alſo vaſſals. This impoſt is of very antient date in Great-Ruſſia, and conſiſted, if I miſtake not, in 10 per cent. on the money ariſing from the ſale, which muſt be given in and proved by the certificate of emption. It was afterwards lowered to 6 per cent. and in the year 1783 introduced both into the

* The cheapeſt ſheets coſt at preſent 10 (formerly 5) kopeeks; but for more important tranſactions, according to the nature of the buſineſs, ſeveral rubles.

provinces

provinces of the Baltic and thoſe of Little-Ruſſia. At length the empreſs in 1787 fixed it at 5 per cent. When ſales are frequent, eſpecially of large eſtates, this tax yields a conſiderable receipt to the coffers of the crown.

9. The KABAKS (tippling-houſes,) or the ſale of corn-ſpirits *. It has already been remarked, that though this be a monopoly of the crown, yet by virtue of antient rights and privileges not only all noblemen throughout the empire may diſtil brandy for their own domeſtic uſe †, but alſo whole provinces may deal in it and keep tippling-houſes, for inſtance, the don and malo-

* Whoever farms the kabaks of the crown, is allowed to keep in them alſo beer, mead, &c. and this, with other trifling advantages, enables him to pay the crown for every vedro of brandy 3 rubles, and to ſell it in the kabaks at the ſame price. Then it is lawful for every one, even the boor, to brew his own beer, without being ſubject to any exciſe; only he muſt not deal in it: though this is allowed to the livonian and eſthonian towns, and landlords, and others.

† In Ingria the nobility were not permitted to diſtil as much as they pleaſed, but each a certain quantity according to his rank. Whether this be the ſame all over the empire, or whether perhaps by the new letter of grace granted to the nobility that limitation has been removed, is what I cannot determine; I ſhall only juſt remark, that every ruſſian nobleman may ſell brandy even to the crown, and therefore diſtil the quantity agreed for.

ruſſian

ruſſian Kozaks*, likewiſe the livonian and eſthonian land-owners and towns†, as well as many others. The crown ſells an incredible quantity of brandy, by which it gains large ſums. We are told by Buſching, that "the contract "for the kabaks at Peterſburg and Moſco, with "the parts adjacent, while they were let out "on farm‡, brought in the yearly ſum of "3,320,000 rubles." Theſe two were indeed always the largeſt and moſt populous towns, and the diſtrict of the moſcovian government the moſt extenſive: but if we add the many other

* Yet the crown has kabaks in Little-Ruſſia. — Here it may be remarked, that inns or houſes to put up at are not to be found in all parts, not even in all towns. In many places they are not at all known: travellers turn in at ſome boor's or burgher's houſe.

† That is, the livonian and eſthonian towns are now, by an order of the ſenate, to have even crown kabaks, but their net profits are to be applied to the benefit of theſe towns and to defray their public expences. But, by an ukaſe of the ſenate, of the year 1790, the old regulations remain.

‡ All the kabaks are farmed out; but the contractor can neither diſtil the brandy himſelf, nor buy it at his own option, but muſt take from the crown the whole quantity ſtated in the contract, even though it ſhould happen that few cuſtomers come to drink it. — Noblemen now begin to farm kabaks; but by a late ukaſe of the ſenate it is reſtricted to merchants, &c.

govern-

governments, Pſcove, Novgorod, &c. it may eaſily be conceived that the crown draws annually between 8 and 9 millions from this ſource: which is alſo confirmed by perſons well acquainted with the buſineſs. But a ſhort illuſtration will put the matter out of all doubt. — From a reſolution of the ſenate, of the year 1789, it appears, that the city of St. Peterſburg, with the 7 circles of its government, conſumes annually 583,126 vedros: of which the greater part was then already podraded (contracted) for at 148 kopeeks for every vedro; if they found perſons who were willing to deliver the other quantities at the ſame price, which is extremely probable, then the crown, receiving 3 rubles on each vedro, gains annually 886,351 rubles 52 kopeeks for the brandy of that government alone*. — The

* In the years 1783 to 1786 the livonian noblemen delivered the vedro at 75 kopeeks; but from 1787 to 1790 at 90 kopeeks, whereby, on account of the high crown-prices, they ſuffered conſiderable loſs. At that time therefore the crown gained on every vedro firſt 2 rubles 25 kopeeks, and then 2 rubles 10 kopeeks, as it was at no other expence than what it paid for the brandy by the terms of the contract. The ſeller muſt deliver it in the town agreed on; there the kabak-farmers receive it under the authority of the revenue-chamber, who cauſe it to be carried by hired people into hired houſes, (both at their own expence,) pay the people who ſerve it at the kabaks, and even pay for the caſks; and withal find it very profitable.

govern-

government of Pſcove conſumes yearly, according to the declaration of the revenue-chamber there, in all 127,000 vedros, whereof 40,000 are diſpoſed of in the city of Pſcove alone, but only 6000 in Petſchur *. — The government of Perme conſumed in the year 1783 in all 164,831 vedros, on which the crown had a net profit of 338,876 rubles 51 kopeeks. — The crown indeed takes a part of the brandy requiſite for the kabaks from its own diſtilleries in Ruſſia, but they are not yet in every place upon a beneficial footing †; it therefore finds at times a far ſurer profit, by engaging in contracts for deliveries, which is now done through the revenue-chamber, and always for 4 ſucceſſive years. The contractor muſt give a ſecurity on his immovable property; and what he does not deliver at the ſtipulated time, is purchaſed on his account ‡. — As the crown ſells the livonian faſs, or

* All the kabaks of the villages in the circle are here included. — On account of the vicinity the Livonians deliver their brandy there much cheaper than at Peterſburg. But, as the crown every where gets 3 rubles for the vedro, it gains ſomewhat more in this government than elſewhere.

† This will be farther explained when we come to treat on commerce.

‡ He ſometimes meets with indulgence; but muſt pay a penalty per cent. which however is more tolerable than if it were

or caſk, of brandy for about 36 rubles, but which in Livonia, where the brandy is much ſtronger, is worth ſometimes only from 7 to 12 rubles, the ruſſian boors will run the riſk of buying up the brandy ſecretly by a faſs at a time in Livonia and Eſthonia, and convey it by ſtealth into Ruſſia. Againſt this ſhameful practice of ſmuggling very ſevere prohibitions have been

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were bought on his account, for the crown pays him, if the contract be ſtruck at 90 kopeeks, for the faſs about 11 rubles in bank-aſſignments, which bear a depreciation of 10 to 14 per cent. below ſilver rubles; but ſometimes the faſs is bought on the market in Livonia for 15 to 22 rubles, which among others happened in the years 1789 and 1790. Moreover, the deliverer muſt provide for the tranſport, pay the crown leakage and porterage, furniſh caſks at a low ſtated price, and anſwer all riſks till the delivery is complete. The brandy is held proof by the crown if it burns half away in copper (a copper ſkillet); whereas it muſt be delivered ſo ſtrong from the livonian ſtilleries, that in ſilver ſomewhat at leaſt above the half muſt burn away. Therefore the deliverer to 6 caſks of brandy puts about 1 caſk of water; but as the mixture muſt be made at his houſe, he pays likewiſe freight for the tranſport of the water, which, on every large veſſel of 40 vedros, according to the diſtance and other circumſtances, amounts to between 6 and 8 rubles. — The dealers reap a great advantage in the article of manure for their fields. If the Livonians were to ſend no brandy to Ruſſia, from the great diſtilleries there, the price would fall very low, even in their own country.

iſſued,

iſſued, and inſpectors are appointed at the ſeveral entrances to the towns, and the kabak-farmers themſelves, for their own ſakes, keep a ſharp look out. In Livonia the nobility have entered into an aſſociation not only to amerce thoſe who privily ſell it to the ruſſians in heavy penalties, but to deprive them of the right of diſtilling brandy, and from theſe fines pay a reward to the informer of 500 rubles. Hence it appears that this monopoly of the crown is not exactly to the taſte of the common Ruſſians, who are very fond of brandy, eſpecially of the ſtrong ſort *: but it is ſaid to be a difficult matter to find out another impoſt equally productive in its place; for if it were to be converted into a money-tax, it would ſeem oppreſſive, and occaſion much loſs to the crown by arrears. It is for this reaſon that the monopoly is continued, though it is attended with many difficulties to the officers of the crown.

10. The SALT-TRADE, of which ſeveral particulars have been occaſionally mentioned; as that ſome diſtricts and people, for inſtance, the uralian Kozaks, fetch their ſalt gratis from cer-

* Some common venders were accuſed of having adulterated the brandy in the kabaks, and then, to give it a poignancy, putting in it common pepper, &c. However this is ſtrictly forbidden; and queſtmen are occaſionally appointed to ſee that no frauds of this nature are committed.

tain lakes; while others, such as Livonia and Esthonia, buy it of foreigners, on which the crown only lays a duty. — The crown obtains its salt, with which it supplies the whole empire (whatever expence it is at for carriage) at 35 kopeeks the pood *, partly from lakes, partly from salt-pans, and partly from salt-hills. — The rock-salt of the iletzkian hill costs the crown on the spot not quite one kopeek the pood. Formerly the Kozaks and Baschkirs cut here their salt at will; but, in the year 1754, the crown put it under better regulations. From 3 to 400,000 pood of it is annually brought away and distributed over the empire. It would in many respects be more advantageous if the use of it were farther extended. — In some places the salt stands the crown in 3 kopeeks per pood on the spot †. But the transport is attended with great expence, and consumes much of the profit. For carriage from Ebeley to the province of Isetsk and the forts on the frontiers the crown paid till the year 1768 for every pood from 9 to 13 kopeeks; at which time this mode of conveyance ceased. The salt is now fetched

* One statement speaks of 40 kopeeks, which is a mistake.

† Pallas, travels, tom. iii. p. 292.

to the province of Iſetſk above 1000 verſts from the lakes about the Irtiſh, for which the carriage amounts to between 15 and 18 kopeeks the pood *. — In the government of Perme, at Solikamſk, at Uſſoliye, and in Tſchuſſoffkoi-Gorodok are ſalt-pans partly belonging to the crown and partly to private perſons: to the latter the crown uſed to pay 8 kopeeks a pood for ſeething; but, ſince the year 1786, they get for the uſſolian ſalt 9½, and for the ſolikamſkian 10½ kopeeks. For the tranſport to Niſhnei-Novgorod, where the principal ſtore is kept, the hired carriers are allowed 10 kopeeks; whence it is conveyed partly by water and partly by land. From its own pans the crown obtained in the year 1782 at Solikamſk 910,142 poods. But the whole quantity prepared there annually is 4 millions of poods. On all that was conſumed in the government of Perme and carried thence elſewhere, the profits to the crown in 1782 amounted to 490,000 rubles. — But great quantities of ſalt are obtained by the crown † in other places from ſalt-lakes, &c. — At Staraiya-Ruſſa it coſts indeed

* Pallas, travels, tom. iii. p. 305.

† It has been affirmed that from the ſalt-lakes in the ſteppes of Baraba and Irtiſh 1,400,000 pood of ſalt is annually obtained.

20 ko-

20 kopeeks the pood; but then it is disposed of in the neighbourhood at no great expence in carriage. — Hermann thinks that the Elton-saltlake and the salt-works at Perme together yield more than two thirds of the salt consumed in the whole empire. But this is hard to determine, at least it is doubtful, if not utterly improbable, because some districts fetch their salt themselves (whose consumption is not easily to be ascertained); others buy it of the foreigner; much rock-salt is consumed; in several places are salt-pans and lakes, which he seems to have entirely forgotten, for instance, the productive salt-lakes in Taurida; and lastly a good deal of smuggling may be practised. It would therefore be difficult to state how much the whole empire annually consumes. Hermann says * 12 millions of poods; but from the reasons which he assigns, it is manifest that this statement is not sufficient. — Busching is of opinion that the crown draws from the salt-works (whence it appears that the lake and rock-salt are included, but merely the net profit) annually not above 2 millions. This number seems to be just, unless we limit the yearly consumption to 12 millions of poods. Hereto must be added, that a great quantity of

* Hermann, Ertzgeb. tom. i. p. 74, and p. 143.

ſalt is exported from Taurida to other countries for the benefit of the crown, eſpecially to the poliſh Ukraine and to Turkey.

11. The MINES. The moſt important of the mines belonging to the crown are thoſe of Kolyvan or Barnaul, and thoſe of the Argoon, or properly of Nertſchinſk; both yield ſilver containing a proportion of gold; then follow the gold-works at Ekatarinenburg; and beſides theſe ſeveral copper and iron-works. — It appears that at Kolyvan the annual produce has not always been alike; in the year 1772 it conſiſted in 1277 pood of ſilver, which was found to contain 50 pood of pure gold: the value whereof in coin was 1,769,902 rubles. At times the produce is far ſhort of this. — The mines at Nertſchinſk are reckoned to yield annually from 200 to 400 pood of ſilver ore, from which 1000 pound and about 12½ pound of gold are obtained. At Ekatarinenburg from 5 to 7 pood of gold-duſt may be hammered into bars every year; but in 1782 its net produce was no more than 22,143 rubles 15 kopeeks; yet the profit from 1754 to 1786 was in all 1,341,352 rubles 68 kopeeks. — From all the ores of Altay, from 1745 to 1780 were ſeparated in all 686 pood, 16 pound, 49 ſolotniks of pure gold. — The copper and iron

mines

mines likewiſe bring the crown a great income: in the government of Perme in 1782 the copper yielded a profit of 341,676 rubles; and the iron 228,699 rubles 73½ kopeeks. Beſides theſe it has iron forges in the governments of Tambof and Olonetz. — The mines produce not only metals but various kinds of ſtones, as marble, ſmoky topazes, amethyſts, agates, mountain-cryſtals, jaſper, granite with veins of coloured quartz, &c. which are diſpoſed of by the crown either poliſhed or unpoliſhed; likewiſe alum, vitriol, &c.* — The late empreſs having by ukaſes of grace relinquiſhed her imperialties on the private mines, namely, the tenths of the copper and iron, the ſilver and the gold, and likewiſe remitted the taxes on forges at the works, the crown now raiſes no revenue from them, excepting from the copper which is delivered to the mint at a reaſonable price.

As the ſtate of the mines can be but little known from other writers, a farther account of them here, as I have it from good authorities, may be acceptable to many of my readers. It is true that Buſching has mentioned the amount

* From all which it appears that they who make the yearly product of the mines only 500,000 rubles, are very far ſhort of the mark.

of the ſilver ore obtained from them between the year 1704 when they were firſt diſcovered, and 1772, likewiſe of the year 1779; yet I add from an authentic liſt eleven years to theſe: and it is to be obſerved that theſe ſtatements are of far greater compaſs than the former *. It muſt in the firſt place be remarked, that the mines of Barnaul or Kolyvan are much more productive than thoſe of Nertſchinſk: for the pits hitherto opened in the latter have no continued or ſteady veins, are never powerful, and ſeldom terminate in large neſts, are always poorer as they proceed in depth, and change their contents at every fathom. Yet new but always poor veins are frequently diſcovered; conſequently the amount of the ſilver obtained is not every year alike, and can never, with any certainty, be previouſly eſtimated to what it may ariſe. — The ſilver is not of like kind, and not ſo abundant in gold, as that of Barnaul; the ſolotnik is only reckoned at 19½ kopeeks, whereas the ſolotnik of gold is valued at 2 rubles 50 kopeeks. The former muſt ſtand the teſt of 90 to 93. The gold is

* Hence it is particularly ſeen, how abundant the ore is, and how much gold adheres to it. — The bank purchaſed theſe mines in 1792 for 2 millions of rubles, to be paid in 10 years by annual inſtalments of 200,000 rubles.

ſeparated

ſeparated from it at the laboratory of St. Peterſburg. — The crown allows for all expences of the ſilver mines of Nertſchinſk, including the maintenance of the battalion, the annual ſum of 200,000 rubles; which is ſometimes, but not every year, entirely conſumed. What is obtained above this ſum, is called net profit. This ſeldom amounts to leſs than 100,000 rubles, uſually more. Sometimes a greater quantity of ſilver is ſmelted from the ore, and yet an inferior net profit is obtained; as when a ſcarcity of proviſions or other conſiderable expences carry away the whole ſum of the allotted 200,000 rubles. — The following table exhibits the produce:

	Silver ore ſmelted.	Thence obtained pure ſilver.				Wherein was pure gold.			
Years.	Pood.	Pood.	lt.	Solot[k]	Parts.	Pood.	lb.	Solot[s]	Parts.
1775	2,165,600	500	8	41	35	2	4	19	72
1776	1,682,706	382	11	64	39	1	8	57	69
1777	1,377,797	303	12	—	69	1	17	35	82
1778	1,981,869	353	16	53	72	2	8	23	11
1779	1,605,802	317	29	54	84	1	10	8	85
1780	1,926,012	415	39	44	43	1	8	88	86
1781	1,597,273	368	27	57	67	1	9	56	6
1782	1,919,080	423	21	77	88	1	18	8	63
1783	1,831,535	441	10	79	70	—	39	86	1
1784	1,858,456	422	1	50	70	1	25	3	37
1785	1,333,406	265	29	42	73	1	7	73	35

Of the above *parts* 96 make a ſolotnik.

Buſching ſays, in the year 1779 were procured of ore 380 pood, 33 pound, 51 ſolotniks. His ſtatement that 1000 pound of it contained about 12½ pound of gold, is here ſhewn to be wrong.

Mr. Storch, well known for his ſtatiſtical accuracy, thinks it may be admitted with the higheſt degree of probability, that at preſent every year in the ruſſian empire is produced of

Gold about - - -	40 pood
Silver - - - -	1300
Lead - - - - -	30,000
Copper - - - -	200,000
Iron - - - - -	5,000,000
Salt - - - - -	12,000,000

with a quantity of mineral products, which, in money, by the moſt moderate computation, may be ſtated at 13 millions of rubles; and by adding the precious ſtones, ſulphur, vitriol, &c. conſidering the preſent prices, cannot be leſs than 15 millions of rubles.

From this produce the net gain, after deducting all expences or charges, amounted in

1775	in all to	253,028 rubles	$72\frac{1}{2}$ kopeeks
1776	—	158,896 —	$74\frac{1}{2}$
1777	—	118,093 —	$28\frac{1}{4}$
1778	—	109,021 —	$90\frac{5}{8}$
1779	—	106,305 —	49
1780	—	119,306 —	$96\frac{3}{4}$
1781	—	86,159 —	$14\frac{3}{4}$
1782	—	100,848 —	$12\frac{3}{8}$
1783	—	142,204 —	$27\frac{1}{4}$
1784	—	122,460 —	$25\frac{1}{4}$
1785	—	29,872 —	41

12. The

12. The MINT, of which an account muſt reaſonably be expected here, yet only ſo far as it ſtands related to the national revenue; the other remarks belong not to this place, but to the article of commerce, where a ſtatement will be given of the various coins, and their value in circulation. — The ruſſian monies conſiſt of gold, ſilver, copper, and bank aſſignations. Theſe laſt, as a great convenience to commerce, and facilitate the remittances throughout the country, ſupply the place of copper, require here no very nice deſcription, becauſe there is always ſuppoſed to be as much copper-coin in the bank as that every one immediately on application may receive it in exchange for the paper he brings, and in circulation bear their full value as hard copper *. They therefore cannot properly be reckoned among the ordinary ſources of national revenue, though from them an advantage may accrue to the crown, as, among other ways, when theſe notes are accidentally burnt or otherwiſe deſtroyed: yet alſo a loſs may enſue

* The copper ſpecie is commonly about 10 per cent, and ſometimes more inferior in value to ſilver or gold in commercial and other payments; the aſſignations bear therefore the ſame value. Some even require an agio when they give copper money for aſſignations, but this is forbidden by ukaſe. — In many countries the paper money is a lucrative operation of finance.

on occaſion of them, as when perſons are ſo fearleſs of the laws and ſo diſhoneſt as to forge them and bring their ſpurious notes into circulation. — Of the copper coinage Buſching ſays, there is a yearly profit of 2 millions upon it. This ſum may perhaps be rated too high, at leaſt according to Hermann's account *, who ſets it down for the year 1779 at only 818,165 rubles 98 kopeeks; and in another place he mentions that the crown, at the mint of Ekatarinenburg, where the copper is coined, gained in 1782, after deducting all expences of coinage, a clear profit of 765,582 rubles 70 kopeeks. Indeed at times great ſums paſs through the mint at that place, many years to the amount of 3 millions, and then the profit may ariſe to 2 millions; but in the years 1786 and 1787, from a want of water, the ſum did not much exceed 1½ millions, and in the year 1783 it was ſtill leſs †. The pood of copper coſts the crown, from its own founderies, about 5 rubles; but when it is obliged to purchaſe the ſame, 9 rubles; the private founderies muſt all deliver the half of their copper to the mint, at the rate of 5 rubles 50 kopeeks the pood: but the pood of

* See Ural-ertzgeb. tom. ii, p. 104.

† See Hermann's Ertzgeb. tom. ii. p. 99 & ſq. and tom. iii. p. 363 & ſq.

copper

copper is coined into 16 rubles; if we deduct from this the waſte in the coinage, the wages of workmen, and the expence of tranſport, the remainder is pure profit. Formerly the mine-owners were obliged to deliver two thirds of their copper at the mint, which afterwards was lowered to the half. Some are of opinion, that theſe deliveries ceaſed with the other imperialties which the empreſs relinquiſhed by her ukaſe of grace: but this ſeems to be an error ariſing from a miſconception of the matter; for the ukaſe of the 28th of June 1786 expreſsly ſays in the 28th article: "Whoever ſhall hence-"forward, beſides the actual produce of his "copper-works, obtain a freſh increaſe from "them, or ſhall open a new mine, ſhall, for this "copper gained above the ſtated quantity, be "freed from the obligation of delivering the "half of that metal at 5 rubles 50 kopeeks into "the caiſſe, and at the ſame time be at liberty "to deliver it, on ſuch terms as he can agree "to, to our aſſignation-bank, and either to ſell "it or to carry on any lawful trade with it "that he finds moſt profitable *." — Not only ruſſian

* By an ukaſe of the 23d of June 1794, all copper-works belonging to individuals, which are ſet up with the aſſiſtance of the crown-caiſſe, or have received land, foreſts, or boors

ruſſian gold and ſilver are coined, but alſo foreign, which the crown either buys or obtains by commerce and the cuſtoms. Thus, the chineſe commerce brings ſilver into the empire at 16 rubles the pound *. The cuſtoms at Riga, which muſt be paid in Alberts-dollars †, yield the crown a conſiderable quantity of ſilver for the mint. That this metal is likewiſe brought to St. Peterſburg appears from authentic documents. According to one of theſe there came to that city in the year 1788:

	Number.	Weight.			Value.	
		Pood.	lb.	Solotniks.	Rubles.	Kops
GOLD:						
Ingots	2	—	18	—	6428	—
Ducats	3200	—	31	90	9650	—
SILVER:						
Bars	29	24	36	—	24,010	—
Dollars	211,250	357	21	91	320,117	50
				Total	360,205	50

boors from the crown, muſt pay, over and above the former tenths, ten pood out of every hundred.

* Pallas, travels, tom. iii. p. 145. — This is the price of ſilver in Ruſſia; the ſilverſmiths, however, now pay ſomewhat more for it.

† The Alberts-dollars that come into the cuſtom-houſe there are immediately cut into two and ſent to the mint at Peterſburg.

The

The crown has ſometimes found great advantage in the purchaſe of ſilver from abroad *; but in general the coinage of ſilver and gold forms a part of the national revenue.

13. NATURAL PRODUCTS, in which taxes and tribute are paid, the true amount whereof can never be accurately aſcertained. Thus Livonia is bound to deliver for every haak a ſtated

* The following anecdote from the mouth of an imperial miniſter may ſerve as an illuſtration of what is here advanced. When the emperor Peter III. was about to undertake the expedition which he had reſolved to make againſt Denmark with an army of 80,000 men, whereof count Romantzof was to form the avant-guard with a body of 20,000, he endeavoured not only to enter into a treaty with certain courts concerning the proper requiſites, &c. but cauſed alſo a remittance of 10 millions of rubles to defray the firſt expences of the campaign. The remittance of theſe ſums could not be done without loſs. By the well-known events which preſently after happened, the expedition fell to the ground; and then aroſe the queſtion, how beſt to draw back the money without additional loſſes, and that at once, at leaſt ſo as that no exceeding long term might intervene? A very reſpectable miniſter, then in office, conſulted on the ſubject with Mr. William Gomm, an engliſh merchant at St. Peterſburg, and court-banker, who recommended ſecrecy, and drew up a plan, in which all mention of recalling the money was ſtudiouſly avoided, but a commiſſion was given at various places to buy gold and ſilver in bars to that amount; by which a conſiderable gain enſued.

quantity

quantity of rye, barley, oats, and hay, for money indeed, but for a low fixed price, and at whatever place the ſtewartry of proviſions is pleaſed to appoint *: Eſthonia pays in rye and barley. — Some tribes ſend hides and furs into the imperial treaſury. Thus, the Vogules deliver a certain number of elk-ſkins †; ſome pay ſables in natura ‡; ſome tartars pay tribute in martens or other furs, as thoſe on the river Tſchulym §. Of the Tunguſes it appears, that about the year 1770 money has been taken inſtead of ſuch tributes ‖. Tributes in kind, in many diſtricts, as in thoſe of Kraſnoyarſk, are ſtill aſcertained by ſables, though no longer headwiſe, but of whole ſtems collectively; alſo not always in ſables, but generally in other furs, even in hides of large deer and elks, which

* Sometimes meal is required inſtead of rye, and griſt inſtead of barley, whereby a loſs is apt to ariſe, and the receiver may have an opportunity for finding fault. But the caſe is hardeſt when the delivery, particularly of the hay, is required to be made at very diſtant places. — However, in return for theſe hardſhips, in Livonia and Eſthonia they are exempt from the furniſhing of recruits. — The livonian arende-eſtates belonging to the crown deliver corn gratis.

† Pallas, travels, tom. ii. p. 258, and Hermann's Beytrag. tom. iii. p. 143.

‡ Hermann, ib. p. 235. § Pallas, travels, tom. ii. p. 319 and 663. ‖ Id. ib. p. 241. & ſq.

the

the caiſſe admits at 60 to 120 kopeeks a piece for the uſe of the cavalry. Much tribute is paid in money, and then the ſable is reckoned at a ruble *. Thus the Sagayans (Tartars) on the banks of the Abakan, pay for each bow 3 rubles †. — In regard to all ſuch tributes the late empreſs granted a great alleviation by ordering the acceptance of other furs more eaſily obtained; and at the ſame time ſecured the tributaries from the vexations formerly exerciſed by the receivers; of which ſomething farther will be mentioned hereafter.

14. The ſhare of EXCISE AND RECOGNITION DUTIES in towns, but which amount to no great ſums, and are not raiſed by far in all towns.

15. The POSTS, which only yield a net profit in ſome provinces where the maintenance occaſions no expence to the crown. — In Livonia and Eſthonia the owners of eſtates are obliged to keep all the poſt-houſes; the crown, therefore, in the year 1786 raiſed a revenue of about 66,000 rubles from the poſt-office at Riga: — whereas the ſupport of the poſt-houſes ‡ in Ingria coſts it a pretty large ſum.

* The Vogules in the government of Perme pay, if I rightly recollect, 2 rubles in lieu of the ſables.

† Pallas, travels, tom. iii. p. 12 and 348.

‡ I believe latterly ſome alteration was made in this reſpect.

16. All

16. All kinds of RENT for places, ſhops, mills, parcels of ground, bee-hives in foreſts, bathing-houſes, fiſheries, public inns, &c.* Particularly a good deal of land which the crown cannot occupy is let on leaſe as fields or meadows, by deſættines, for a trifle indeed, but from the great quantity, amounting to a good ſum upon the whole.

17. RECRUIT-MONEY from merchants: theſe were obliged formerly to furniſh recruits, but now they pay for each recruit 500 rubles to the imperial caiſſe. From 100,000 merchants this amounts at every levy to a conſiderable ſum. — Foreign merchants are exempt from it.

18. Various PECUNIARY PENALTIES, ſuch as, for harbouring or concealing deſerters, for diſtilling brandy contrary to law, for ſelling brandy or ſalt contrary to law, for neglect of duty, (on which occaſions a part of the officers' pay is deducted,) for keeping accounts in arrears, &c.

* Some of theſe contracts have indeed been diſcontinued, as the capture of ſea-dogs in the Baikal; but others continue, as appears from the ſeveral ukaſes and the revenue-accounts. Concerning ſome I have my doubts, as ſeveral may perhaps have been aboliſhed latterly, as the tenth of the marienglas at Udinſk; likewiſe the 10 rubles for every iron foundery, and on ſmithies in Yeniſeiſk. See Pallas, travels, tom. iii. p. 95 and 309.

Yet

Yet in ſuch caſes none are proceeded againſt with extreme ſeverity.

What few remaining ſources of revenue there may be will be found in ſome reſpects at leaſt reducible to one or other of the foregoing denominations.

The national revenue then at preſent amounts annually to about as follows:

	Rubles.
Tax on capital of 107,264 merchants, of whom though many pay only 5 rubles per annum, yet almoſt as many pay 10, or 50 to 100, and ſome even 1000 rubles; ſay only - - - - - - - - -	1,300,000
Poll-tax on 247,604 burghers, at 120 kopeeks - - - - - - -	297,000
Poll-tax on 11,205,077 boors belonging to the crown and to private individuals, who, for the moſt part, pay 70 kopeeks, a few ſomewhat leſs, but many far more; on account of arrears, &c. ſay only. - - - - - -	7,000,000
Poll-tax on 774,067 odnodvortzi, at 1 ruble; ſome pay more, but others nothing at all - - - -	700,000
Obrok on theſe odnodvortzi, at 3 rubles - - - - - - - - -	2,300,000

Obrok

	Rubles.
Obrok on 4,568,166 crown and œconomy-boors, at 3 rubles; yet becauſe ſome contribute leſs, or perform work inſtead, or remain in debt, &c. only - - - - -	9,000,000
Addition to the poll-tax and obrok, on each ruble 2 kopeeks - -	380,000
Cuſtoms at all the ſea-ports, about	8,000,000
Land-duties I reckon only at * -	800,0000
From kabaks and public-houſes -	8,500,000
From the ſale of ſalt - - - - -	2,000,000
From the crown-mines about - -	1,800,000
From the mint - - - - - - -	2,000,000
From ſtamped paper, perhaps -	600,000
Poſchlin on the ſale of immovable property, likewiſe on proceedings at law, with ſeal-money, as alſo for preparing of patents, at leaſt	800,000
Exciſe and recognition-duties, ſundries ariſing from premiums for contracts, rents, recruiting, and forfeitures - - - - - - - -	600,000
From Livonia and Eſthonia, from the crown-eſtates, in arende-corn,	

* When the trade with China is in good progreſs, as with other neighbouring countries, it amounts much higher, probably to 2 millions.

and

	Rubles.
and ſpecie, likewiſe profit on payments in natural products from private and public eſtates, as alſo in revenues from the poſt-houſes	200,000
From families and kibitkies of Kalmucs, from Tartars of Taurida, &c. * - - - - - - - - - -	100,000

Beſides many other receipts, particularly in natural products, which are not here ſpecified. Accordingly we have now a reſult of upwards of 46 millions; though appearances give room to ſuppoſe that the receipts are not eſtimated to their full amount †. But allowing that ſeveral articles produce rather leſs, yet there remains exceedingly more than foreigners (generally from conjectures without foundation or knowledge of the matter) have hitherto ſtated. That the revenues cannot amount to much leſs, is manifeſt from the incontrovertible facts which have been adduced; however, ex abundanti, it may be illuſtrated by an inſtance taken from another point of view. To this end let us ſelect three governments which are not among the largeſt either as to ſuperficial contents or to the num-

* The tribute in furs paid by ſundry nations I comprehend under the poll-tax and obrok.

† On making a calculation ſome time ago with an intelligent man, we brought the produce to upwards of 48 millions, though every particular was very moderately rated.

ber of their inhabitants, namely, thoſe of Reval, Riga, and Perme. In the two firſt are found neither of the productive monopolies of the crown, viz. the ſale of brandy and ſalt, nor mines; and beſides they are the ſmalleſt in the whole empire. But the government of Riga in the year 1785 brought in above $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions, and that of Reval, being the leaſt, in 1787 about 300,000 rubles. From that of Perme the receipts are at preſent calculated to be above $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions. Now conſider the number, the dimenſions, and the revenues of the other governments *.

The national revenue, therefore, far exceeds that of moſt other countries in Europe, and is amply ſufficient not only to anſwer all the expences of government, but alſo to afford conſiderable ſums for the benefit and embelliſhment of the empire, though the late empreſs remitted many taxes and aboliſhed ſeveral monopolies. With the farther increaſe of commerce it will naturally keep equal pace. — But if we take into the account the military ſervice performed by ſome nations, among others of the Don-kozaks and their numerous branches, or the great

* Here might, perhaps, be a proper place to ſubjoin ſome farther obſervations on the public burdens or taxes; this will be done afterwards if room can be ſpared for that purpoſe.

ſavings

ſavings * ariſing from the nature of the government and the habits of the people, and regard them, as we properly may, as part of the revenue, we ſhall find the amount to be greater by ſome millions.

The national expenditure ought reaſonably now to be ſet againſt the receipts, and both compared together; but to this I find myſelf not competent, and muſt, therefore, make a few brief remarks ſuffice. — In general it may be affirmed, that in drawing a compariſon between Ruſſia and other european nations it exhibits a ſtriking difference in regard to national expences †. What in other countries demands enormous ſums, can ſometimes in Ruſſia be accompliſhed at much leſs than the half: only

* Among theſe are not only the ſmall pay of the ſoldiers and ſailors, but alſo many other particulars. Thus, the whole of the vaſt multitude of the uralian Kozaks, for all their military ſervices on the frontiers of that ſide of the empire, &c. receive of the crown no more than an annual pay of 5000 rubles, and a few preſents when they bring fiſh to Peterſburg: in return, the abundant fiſhery in the river Ural is granted to them, (for which ſome merchants are ſaid to have offered to take by contract at the ſum of 200,000 rubles,) by means of which they are enabled to paſs their days in idleneſs, jollity, and luxury, and think themſelves richly paid.

† One of the firſt is, that, for inſtance, in ſome countries, where the national income is very great, the major part of it goes to pay the intereſt of the national debt.

compare the many great fortreſſes in France, or the pay of ſailors in England and Holland, with thoſe in Ruſſia, where the cheapneſs of proviſions and other neceſſaries, the multiplicity of the products, the low pay, the ſervices to be performed without wages, and ſeveral other things occaſion very conſiderable ſavings. — However it muſt be obſerved on the other hand, that the preſent national expenditure in Ruſſia is widely different from what it formerly was: to convince us of this we need only turn our eyes to the numerous fleets, the augmentations of the army, the many ſumptuous eſtabliſhments, the embelliſhments of the reſidence, the erection and ſupport of a great number of new towns, the beneficial endowments, the ſalaries of the officers in the provincial governments, and a thouſand other things, in compariſon of the expences of the imperial treaſury in former reigns. It is not therefore ſurpriſing that new ſources of revenue were neceſſary for meeting theſe expences. How many millions have been ſpent upon the coloniſts! What ſums are now required by the numerous places of education, cadet-corps, ſchools, the making of new roads, for inſtance that from Peterſburg to Moſco, &c. Even the miniſters at foreign courts are increaſed in number; and how many conſuls did Catharine II. keep in ſeveral places where formerly there were none!

The penſions, likewiſe, at preſent * require more than formerly, as there are two new orders of knighthood inſtituted who receive them. — From this curſory view it appears, indeed, that the national expences muſt be very great, but the actual amount of them cannot be accurately given by any private individual, probably not even by the high-treaſurer of the empire †.

That the erection and ſupport of the governments, on account of the great number of officers on ſtipends, muſt occaſion to the crown an annual expence of ſome millions, of which nothing was heretofore known, needs not to be inſiſted on. It may be illuſtrated by an example drawn from the five following governments. That of St. Peterſburg, including the military commands, coſts annually 144,450 rubles; that of Vyborg 113,663; that of Reval about 108,000; that of Riga in alberts-dollars and ruſſian coin

* Even in the penſions there are certain ſavings in Ruſſia. It often happens that ſuperannuated officers requeſt, inſtead of a penſion, to be placed in ſome garriſon, where, though with leſs pay, they live at greater eaſe and at a much ſmaller expence. Others obtain, in lieu of a penſion, a piece of crown land on paying the arende. Others again are allowed an annual preſent out of the revenues ariſing from the œconomy-boors.

† There are national expences which are never publicly known, at leaſt are never named in the eſtimates according to their application to particular views of government. Sums that occaſionally paſs through the hands of a foreign miniſter, &c.

together about 168,000; and that of Perme 161,947 rubles. — For the army eſtabliſhment, according to the declaration of a late member of the college of war, about the year 1764, was near upon 9 millions; the commiſſaries of proviſion received 2,300,000 rubles: whether this ſum be ſtill ſufficient, as the army is much increaſed, I cannot ſay, but probably it is, becauſe by the new regulations many expences are avoided. — But that the ſum formerly allotted to the marine of 1,200,000 cannot now in any degree ſuffice, is manifeſt from the brief repreſentation already given.

It is certain that the expences of various kinds would be remarkably diminiſhed, (and the receipts at the ſame time be increaſed,) if all the people in office would faithfully manage the ſums that paſs through their hands as their duty requires. Formerly the crown was ſubject to great loſſes (as is the caſe more or leſs in all countries) by negligence * and likewiſe by fraud †. — So likewiſe would the national revenue

* Thus, hay is ſometimes bought at a high price on the crown's account; and, not being wanted for immediate uſe, is ſuffered to lie expoſed to the weather till it is entirely ſpoilt. So it frequently fares with the deliveries of meal in mat-ſacks.

† One inſtance may ſerve out of ten thouſand. An officer (by birth a German) had a large magazine under his care, which brought him in conſiderable profit. Being called

venue be greater in itſelf if certain defects and diſadvantages could be entirely avoided. For, not to mention the great arrears in the obrok and poll-tax, or in other matters, both the ſea and land cuſtoms ſuffer a conſiderable defalcation by ſmuggling, which, in ſpite of all precautions hitherto employed, flouriſhes here as much, at leaſt, as in other countries. In the mean time the great number of frontier-ſurveyors and frontier-riders appointed for the ſuppreſſion of it coſt the imperial treaſury conſiderable ſums. — It has ſometimes formerly happened, that either merchants or perſons in office,

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called to town to deliver his accounts, on the journey the public-houſe where he had put up for the night took fire (who ſet it on fire need not be mentioned). He proved the burning of the houſe, lamented that his books were all burnt in it, and was diſmiſſed without farther proceſs. — In the ſeven-years-war a contractor, who was bargaining with a general for a delivery of meal, demanded by far too high a price. On being chid for having the aſſurance to aſk ſo exorbitantly, excuſed himſelf by ſaying, that he could reckon on but a very moderate profit, as he muſt make a number of preſents before he could hope to touch the money; firſt to get the contract approved and ſigned; then that no fault ſhould be found with the meal on its delivery; next to get the proper receipt for it; afterwards to obtain an order for payment; and, laſtly, to procure the money without tireſome delays and evaſions. It was ſaid that ſuch tranſactions latterly became leſs frequent.

by their manner of proceeding, or by accident, have interrupted the trade with ſome of the neighbouring nations, and thereby brought a ſenſible detriment to the cuſtoms, and indeed to ſeveral provinces. — However, during the reign of her late majeſty ſeveral former diminutions of the revenue were checked by prudent meaſures, and at the ſame time the amount very much increaſed. One method was by putting a ſtop to the practice of farming out the duties, &c.

Concerning the national debt miſtakes are alſo gone abroad. Some authors have eſtimated it at 40 millions of rubles; but this ſtatement is erroneous. Buſching gives it accurately from a manifeſto of June 28, 1786, in which the empreſs ſays, that by wars, by the augmentation of the forces by ſea and land, as well as by coſtly undertakings to the incalculable benefit of the empire, an expence has been already incurred to the amount of ſix millions ſix hundred thouſand rubles. Which debt was to be liquidated in the middle of the year 1795*. When this is compared with the formidable national debt in other countries of Europe, and at the ſame time regard is had to the large revenues of Ruſſia, it is evidently a mere trifle.

* Not by new taxes, as in many other countries, but by the ſurpluſſes ariſing from the ordinary national revenues.

VIEW

OF THE

RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

BOOK VIII.

THE IMPERIAL COLLEGES.

TO facilitate our view of theſe objects, and to diſcriminate them more effectually from each other, I ſhall follow the method hitherto purſued by dividing them under ſeparate heads.

SECTION I.

Preliminary Remarks.

THE adminiſtration of ſo large a government demands not only courts, but that ſome of them, according to the circuit of their cognizance and affairs, ſhould be endowed with conſiderable authority, and at the ſame time diſplay a ſuitable dignity

dignity and ſplendor. However, an imperial college by no means reſembles a parliament, having authority, or at leaſt which might venture, to ſet aſide the edicts it received, and delay their execution. Indeed, as has been already ſhewn, by the decree of Peter I. and the regulations adopted by the late empreſs, if, on the emiſſion of any command or law, they wiſh to ſubmit ſome weighty points for conſideration by way of remonſtrance, it is permitted them to do ſo, and to defer the execution till the final reſolution be obtained; when, if the command be repeated, no farther delay enſues.

Moſt of the imperial colleges, as will readily be ſuppoſed, are in the reſidence, in the vicinity, and as it were under the eye of the ſovereign; many of them, however, have their ſeveral diſtinct departments at Moſco, and ſome have even their principal ſeſſion there: either becauſe that capital was formerly alſo the reſidence, and therefore ſtill enjoys ſome privileges; or as being thought more convenient for the diſpatch of particular affairs. — Moreover, the imperial colleges are of two kinds, ſome being co-ordinate with each other, and others ſubordinate. In their halls of aſſembly at the upper end of the table ſtands a chair of ſtate under a canopy for the ſovereign, as a ſenſible token of that authority

preſiding

preſiding there, a conſtant ſuggeſtion to the aſſembled members, and a magnificence exciting awe *. The members of the colleges ſit at the ſides of the tables, as does the preſident likewiſe. — In the imperial colleges is a procureur, or upper-procureur, but in the ſenate a general procureur. The procureur ſits in one corner of the hall; in another the ſecretary or upper ſecretary: neither of whom have properly any voice in the tranſactions †; but the former muſt obſerve that nothing is done contrary to law, and therefore it is his buſineſs to remind the aſſembly during their conſultations of the particular laws that relate to the matter before them as occaſion may require.

* In all the inferior courts a triangular figure of braſs ſurmounted with an imperial crown is placed upon the table, of the ſame nature with the mace belonging to bodies corporate in England, as a ſymbol of the authority by which the ſittings are held. On the three faces of this triangle are inſcribed the ukaſes of Peter I. concerning judges and parties. Whoever behaves diſreſpectfully or improperly before this figure, is conſidered as having behaved ſo in preſence of the ſovereign.

† In the lower courts, where new judges are choſen every three years, the ſecretary muſt preſent the members of the court with the laws that ſerve to the deciſion of the caſes that come before them. This, together with long experience, &c. may give him at times a certain degree of influence, and that even in ſuperior courts.

No

No ſentence is valid, or can be ſent abroad without his ſignature. If the procureur, e. g. in the ſenate, perceives ſome contrary reaſons, he repreſents them to the department; if they prove of no avail, he delivers them to the general procureur, who may, if he pleaſe, lay the matter before the aſſembled ſenate. — Belonging to all the colleges are not only a great number of chancery-officers, as ſecretaries, archiviſts, cancelleriſts, writers, &c. as there is a prodigious deal of writing *; but every one of the ſuperior has its own printing-office, as well as its phyſicians in ordinary.

Peter the great is allowed on all hands to have accompliſhed much; but it was not poſſible for him to introduce every thing at once. Under his ſucceſſors in many reſpects but little was done: perhaps likewiſe abuſes might creep in by the undue exerciſe of power by a particular college, or the uſurpations or the negligence of ſome perſons who had arrived at the ſummit of conſe-

* In no other country in the world perhaps are the offices even of the inferior courts, ſo thronged with clerks, and no where is there ſo much writing as in Ruſſia. — Nevertheleſs it is pretended that formerly in every chancery an adequate regularity did not always prevail. — On urgent occaſions, after making ſtrict ſearch for papers, plans, admeaſurements, and a thouſand other things, they could not be found in their proper places.

quence.

quence *. This it was that ſuggeſted to Catharine II. the neceſſity for making many alterations, and for adopting new regulations. — Likewiſe by the introduction of the provincial governments ſeveral of the former colleges became leſs neceſſary, and others quite ſuperfluous; accordingly ſome have entirely ceaſed to act; others are only employed about long-depending cauſes; of many the public knows not whether they are continued or aboliſhed, or whether they have undergone any changes: therefore no accurate account can now be given of them †. — In general it is not to be expected that I ſhould deliver a circumſtantial deſcription of every college, its members, its concernments, &c. but ſuch brief accounts as the nature of the work allows, will be found in the following ſections.

* One inſtance happened under the empreſs Elizabeth, which excited great attention in regard to the city of Irkutſk, on which occaſion a very upright governor was made a ſacrifice.

† It is not therefore to be wondered at that Buſching ſpeaks doubtfully of various colleges, without aſcertaining whether they be aboliſhed or ſtill in being. — In like manner I mention ſome that exiſted formerly and are now aboliſhed, but ſeveral doubtfully, for want of being able to obtain ſatisfactory accounts. Therefore, it will not juſtly be imputed to negligence, if each college does not appear exactly in its right place, or if ſome comptoirs are entirely paſſed over.

SECTION II.

The Council and the Cabinet.

In common language neither of them are reckoned among the imperial colleges; yet in many reſpects they may be conſidered as ſuch. Both of them met in the palace, depended upon the empreſs, acted under her eyes, received immediately her orders, and were in a manner the places where all things were originally ſubmitted to her deciſion and publiſhed as her decrees.

During the reign of Peter I. neither of them were known: all orders were then iſſued from the ſenate, as the ſupreme college of the empire, where he was frequently preſent and perſonally preſided. The empreſſes Catharine I. and Anna departed from this practice: they erected a cabinet, conſiſting, under their preſidence, of the two chancellors, and perhaps a couple of cabinet-miniſters; and hence the imperial commands were diſpatched to the ſenate *, which was ſtill neceſſary to be done. This was altered again

* It ſeemed to loſe ſomewhat by this, as having now no ſhare in the promulgation of decrees, and conſequently no longer repreſented the true imperial privy-council.

by

by the empreſs Elizabeth, as ſhe always was ſedulous to retain every regulation that had been made by her father: ſhe removed the cabinet; and, by a manifeſto, Dec. 12, 1741, reſtored to the ſenate that conſequence which it had had in the reign of Peter I.

The empreſs Catharine II. on her aſcending the throne ſaw very weighty reaſons for giving a quite different conformation to the ſenate, and alſo thought it for the advantage of government to erect a council and a cabinet.

The COUNCIL was ſtyled in ruſs, her imperial majeſty's council. It was compoſed of the principal officers and perſons of the empire, namely, of general feldt-marſhals, generals in chief, ſenators, and actual privy-counſellors; at preſent they are fourteen in number; the fifteenth fills the place of a chancery-director, and has a ſecretary under him. The vice-chancellor of the empire is a member of this council (the poſt of grand-chancellor is ſometimes, as at preſent, vacant).

The CABINET, to which belongs the care of the ſovereign's private affairs or concerns, as likewiſe the reception of petitions, conſiſts generally of ten perſons, the high ſteward of the houſehold, privy-counſellors, major-generals, and ſtate-

ſtate-counſellors, with their ſeveral ſubordinate officers and chanceries. It alſo examines diſpatches, paſſes accounts, &c. takes cognizance of the produce of ſilver-mines, &c. — Whoever is not ſatisfied with a deciſion of the ſenate, may appeal by petition to the cabinet; and in this reſpect it does the office of a ſupreme tribunal, in which the ſovereign in perſon decides.

In extraordinary caſes it ſometimes happens that a ſpecial high court of juſtice is appointed, not ſubordinate to the ſenate but immediately under the ſovereign. The preſidents are uſually taken from the imperial colleges and other eminent ſtations, and likewiſe from among the members of the ſynod *. Where the alleged offence is of an extremely heinous nature †, the examination is firſt made by particular perſons appointed for that purpoſe, and the protocol is laid before the commiſſioners for their judgment. We have ſeen occaſionally a commiſſion appointed for cauſing plans to be drawn up of important inſtitutions in contemplation, as that, among others, which the late empreſs called

* Only as ſpiritual perſons they never put their hand to a ſentence of death.

† Such, for example, as were thoſe of Mirovitch and Pugatſhef.

together

together ſome years ago to conſider on the ſtate of the mines. On ſuch and various other occaſions the appointment of a commiſſion ſeems highly neceſſary *.

SECTION III.

The two ſupreme Imperial Colleges.

In common acceptation there is but one; namely, the directing ſenate, as that which iſſues its orders to all the other colleges and boards, but receives none except from the ſovereign; having in reality a great authority and high conſideration. Yet in ſome reſpects the ſynod ſhould be conſidered as on a par with it, as being likewiſe ſubject to no other college, but receives

* The late vice-chancellor count Panin frequently declared his diſlike to all commiſſions; he thought it more ſuitable to the due courſe of law, that every cauſe ſhould come before its proper court. But that cannot be done in all caſes: one proof of it is in the abovementioned ſtate of the mines, into which many diſorders had found their way, which the mine-college could not rectify. — Even in matters of leſs moment commiſſions and boards of inquiry are appointed in all countries. But in Ruſſia caſes often happen where two or three courts muſt decide in common; and then they act the part of a commiſſion.

orders from the ſovereign alone. Both require a ſomewhat more preciſe account.

1. The DIRECTING SENATE was conſtituted by the emperor Peter I. who raiſed it alſo to the rank of the ſupreme or higheſt college of the empire *. By an ukaſe of the 15th of December 1763, (which the ſenate publiſhed under the date of January 12, 1764,) the late empreſs new-modelled it entirely, commanding that it ſhould thenceforwards conſiſt of ſix departments, each of which to have its allotted buſineſs, but neither to take precedence of the other: four of theſe are in Peterſburg, and the other two in Moſco. Each iſſues its orders, and ſends them to the inferior courts †. The nomination and the num-

* The exact day of its inſtitution, as we find it in the account of Scheremetof's life, was the 25th of February 1711, in the calendar of the academy of ſciences for the year 1790 it is accordingly ſaid to have exiſted 79 years; whereas our countryman captain Perry, who was then in the country, tells us that it was inſtituted at Moſco in 1709, and called to Peterſburg in 1712, and that at firſt it conſiſted of nine boyars. — In fact it ſeems to have been erected in the place of the old boyars.

† As each of the ſix departments iſſues decrees in that belonging to it, (which are uniformly called ſenate-ukaſes,) it is impoſſible for a private individual, even in the heart of the reſidence, to inform himſelf of all the new ſtatutes and ordinances: only ſome few of them being publiſhed through the preſs.

ber

ber of the members depended ſolely on the empreſs: in the year 1786 the firſt department conſiſted of nine, and the ſecond of ſix members; in 1789 the firſt had fifteen, the ſecond nine. Theſe ſit, as no preſident or vice-preſident is ever choſen, according to their rank and ſeniority. They have always been men of high rank, diſtinguiſhed generals, privy-counſellors, princes, counts, &c. By an ukaſe of Peter I. if the monarch has appointed no others, governors are principally to have ſeats in the ſenate, as being already converſant in ſtate affairs. This ſometimes ſtill happens, as not many years ſince a governor obtained the place of a ſenator*; moreover, every general-governor, by various edicts, in virtue of his office, is a member of the ſenate, at leaſt is regarded as an extraordinary member, for on his coming into the reſidence, he may appear in the ſenate, and there give his vote.

This ſupreme imperial college, which the empreſs, in her Inſtruction to the legiſlative commiſſion, ſect. xxvi. ſtyles the ſanctuary of the laws, can iſſue orders to any other imperial college, and receives reports from them (the ſynod alone is an exception to this, to which however the ſenate in certain caſes may make a ſort of

* The word ſenator is adopted into the ruſſian language.

requeſt): it publiſhes the laws and edicts received from the monarch, and provides for their execution; returns a deciſive anſwer to the queſtions ſent in by the courts or governors in doubtful caſes; appoints to many conſiderable poſts in the viceroyalties; advances, in the name of the empreſs, meritorious civil-officers to higher rank*; and is the higheſt tribunal to which appeal can be made: for none can either appeal from its decrees† nor complain of them; but whoever is diſſatisfied with its ſentence, has no other reſource than to preſent his petition to the cabinet‡, as before obſerved.

* At preſent far more titles, but to which no actual ſervice or pay are annexed, are conferred than formerly, for inſtance, that of a college-ſecretary, titular or actual counſellors, college-aſſeſſors, &c.

† Accordingly the empreſs ſays in her Inſtruction, &c. ſect. xxix. that the appeal to the ſovereign ought always to be rendered difficult.

‡ Then the empreſs uſed (though not always, as it depended on her) to transfer the caſe adjudged by one department to the whole ſenate for their deciſion. If the aſſembly pronounced a unanimous ſentence, then no hope remained to the loſing party of any alteration from the ſovereign. But if only one ſenator judged otherwiſe, then a gleam of hope was left. Some have gone from the whole ſenate (the plenum) with a petition to the cabinet; yet I know of but one inſtance where the empreſs made any alteration in the decree of the ſenate, in order to ſhew a favour to all the perſons concerned.

A very

A very important, and indeed it may be ſaid, the moſt important perſon in the ſenate is the general procureur, who can oppoſe the reſolutions paſſed by any one of the departments, prevent their execution, and convene the whole ſenate together to pronounce upon them; and has, beſides, under his care a great number of important affairs.

In the ſenate are kept the archives of the empire; and various official comptoirs and chanceries belong to it or depend upon it. Theſe are, the office of imperial treaſurer, or the preſent board of the imperial revenues, which has four departments, with particular comptoirs * for the diſburſements and for the ſurpluſſes (or as they ſay in Ruſſia, the over-remaining ſums); then, the board of admeaſurement of the country and the frontiers, with chancery and comptoir, which the late empreſs appointed; the office of general requeſt maſter, the herald-maſter's comptoir, &c. But in the two departments at Moſco the roſræd-archives, containing the family-proofs of all the nobility, have been hitherto kept.

2. The HOLY DIRECTING SYNOD, the ſupreme ſpiritual court of the ruſſo-greek church. In the

* Such an one is the preſent ſtate-comptoir as a diviſion of what is called the kaſnatſcheſtvo, for paying out the ſums neceſſary for the various peterſburg-departments, &c.

year 1789 this high college conſiſted of one metropolitan, one archbiſhop, one biſhop, one protopope, (the imperial confeſſor) one archimandrit, one protopope (of the ſeculars), one upper-procureur, one chief-ſecretary, one executor, three ſecretaries, one protocoliſt, and one ſtaff-ſurgeon; abſent members were, one metropolitan, two archbiſhops, one biſhop. At the ſynodal comptoir at Moſco at that time were one metropolitan, one archprieſt of the ſecular clergy, one procureur, and one ſecretary. In the ſpiritual commiſſion, one metropolitan, one archbiſhop, one privy-counſellor, and one ſecretary * have their ſeats. — Under the authority of the ſynod are all prelates, conſiſtories, eccleſiaſtics, churches, religious books, &c.

* Beſides theſe each eparchy has its own conſiſtory conſiſting of one archimandrit, one or two priors (igumens) and ſome ſecular clergy.

SECTION IV.

The reſt of the imperial Colleges, with ſeveral of the Chanceries, &c.

THEY are in a manner co-ordinate, and correſpond with each other. They were all inſtituted later than the ſenate, the moſt antient of them dating its origin about the year 1718. In reference to the foregoing they may be regarded as colleges of the ſecond claſs. They are diſtinguiſhed from all, even the firſt courts of the viceroyalties, by having their ſphere of action not limited to a ſingle government; and likewiſe in this, that they do not firſt apply to the ſenate, but directly to the ſovereign.

1. The COLLEGE OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS, which has the direction of miniſterial matters, pays the ſalaries of miniſters at foreign courts, penſions, and expences of envoys abroad, gives paſſports, &c. In all public liſts it ſtands before the reſt. The ſeats here are occupied by the vicechancellor and other eminent perſonages, at preſent, for example, the ſteward of the houſhold, two actual ſtate-counſellors, and ſeveral ſtate-counſellors, and chancery-counſellors. Beſides 14

perſons who exerciſe the ſecretariate, 26 tranſlators are here appointed, with ſeveral other chancery-officers. In their liſts the miniſters abroad in 1786 ſtood in the following order: Warſaw, Vienna, Paris, Madrid, Liſbon, Naples, Dreſden, Hague, Turin, London, Ratiſbon, Frankfurt on the Maine, Berlin, Copenhagen, Stockholm, Hamburgh, Eutin, Mitau, Venice, Conſtantinople, Florence, Munich, Dantzick. — Agents or commiſſioners *, were likewiſe kept at Genoa, Maltha, and in 1789 alſo in Perſia.

Hereto may be properly added from the ſame liſts thoſe perſons who are appointed to parts abroad, on account of commerce, or at leaſt under that title, viz. the general conſuls at Hamburgh, Stockholm, London, Liſbon, in Sicily, at Smyrna, in the Archipelago, in Moldavia, at Corfu, Oſtende, Salonichi, Leghorn, Gibraltar, Alexandria, in Albania, Saida, and the other places in Syria, Morea, at Raguza, Bourdeaux, and Venice. — 2. The conſuls, vice-conſuls, and agents: at Sinope, Elſineur, Trieſte, Cadiz, Otranto, Marſeilles, Rome, and

* The ruſſian term poverennuye I do not here pretend to tranſlate accurately. Agent does not come up to it, as that word is already naturalized in the ruſſian language.

Civita-

Civita-vecchia, Amſterdam, Libau, Leipzik, Kœnigſberg, Lubek, Kiel, Dantzik, Augſberg, Kefalonia, Nice, and Villa-franca, Zante, in Dalmatia Ancona, in Perſia at the port of Entſili, in Candia, Cyprus, Rhodes, Chio, Samos, at Varna, Porto-ferraio, Negroponte, Santorini, Bairut, Damaſcus, Vindau, in the Dardanelles, in Moldavia, and at Dunkirk.

The foreign miniſters, reſidents and agents at the imperial court of Ruſſia, are in the following alphabetical order *: from Auſtria, Great Britain, Venice, Holland, Denmark, Spain, Kartalinia, Naples, Poland, Portugal, Pruſſia, Saxony, Sardinia, Tuſcany, France, and Sweden. The cities Lubek, Hamburgh, Bremen, and Dantzic, keep one general agent.

2. The COLLEGE OF WAR. It is compoſed partly of permanent members, and partly of ſuch as are changed. Of the former number is the preſident †, who is always general feldtmarſhal ‡, though this place has been ſometimes left vacant; then the vice-preſident, which poſt is filled by a general in chief; next a general

* That is, according to the ruſſian alphabet.

† Prince Potemkin filled this poſt.

‡ Inſtances have not been wanting of a general in chief becoming general feldt-marſhal ſimply by obtaining the office of preſident.

lieutenant

lieutenant and a general major, or even ſeveral of them. The changeable members conſiſt likewiſe of generals, who are taken from the diviſions at ſtated times. To the chancery, &c. belong the upper ſecretary, with the rank of a colonel in the army, the general controleur, the procureur, general auditor, upper auditor, executor, ſeveral ſecretaries, &c. — This college does not entirely ſupply the place of a miniſter at war; it even has nothing to do with plans of operation, which belong to the council alone; however its buſineſs is extenſive and important; it relates to regulations for the diviſions, camps, encampments, and head-quarters; advancements *, diſmiſſions, and penſions; appointment or depoſition of generals and officers; directions for the payment of ſums required; and a variety of other matters. Under it are the accomptant's office, which delivers the money and articles of ammunition to the diviſions and regiments; the general victualling-office, the office for clothing the army, the military cheſt,

* The war-college promotes up to lieutenant-colonel, but only ſigns the patent of ſubaltern officers. The patents of ſtaff-officers muſt be ſubmitted to the ſovereign for confirmation and ſignature. All generals and colonels were advanced by her majeſty. — The ſame holds good with reſpect to diſmiſſals and reſignations.

the

the manufactories of arms, alſo in certain reſpects the quarter-maſter-general, on whom the artillery and engineers depend. — The cadet-corps is not under the war college. — It has a particular office in Moſco.

3. The ADMIRALTY COLLEGE has its preſident *, who is high-admiral, a vice-preſident, and as members, admirals, and vice-admirals; in the chancery, a procureur, upper ſecretary, general auditor-lieutenant, executor, &c. — In its province are the ſhip-yards, general war-commiſſariate, the ſtore-office, &c. and has alſo its ſubordinate offices † at various places, as, Archangel, Cronſtadt, Kazan, Aſtrakhan, &c. — That the fleet in the Euxine is not under its authority has been already mentioned in its proper place. It directs the conſtruction and the ſtationing of ſhips, has the inſpection of ſuch foreſts as lie near navigable rivers, makes advancements, grants, diſmiſſions, &c. but like the war-college, has no interference with plans of operation.

4. The COLLEGE OF JUSTICE, or commonly the juſtice-college. The law-matters of Livonia, Eſthonia, and Finland are ſtill nominally in its juriſdiction; but ſince the erection of the

* The grand-duke Paul Petrovitch filled that ſtation.

† Kantora is the word in all theſe places adopted into ruſs from the french comptoir.

vice-

viceroyalties of Riga, Reval, and Vyborg, no lawſuits are any longer brought hither from thoſe duchies. From that time it has been ſolely employed in terminating cauſes of long ſtanding, and are now almoſt all decided. It at preſent only takes cognizance of the matrimonial and conſiſtorial ſuits of the members of the proteſtant communions in Ingria or the government of St. Peterſburg and in Ruſſia (for the roman catholics have been for ſome years exempted by an immenoi ukaſe from its juriſdiction, and ſubjected to the archiepiſcopal conſiſtory in Mohilef). Accordingly it is now continued only as a proteſtant conſiſtory.

5. The COLLEGE OF COMMERCE is alſo in St. Peterſburg; has a preſident, ſeveral members, its procureur, executor, ſome ſecretaries, &c.

6. The MEDICAL COLLEGE has a chief-director, preſident, and ſeveral members, amongſt whom are a general ſtaff-doctor, various doctors and ſtaff-ſurgeons. It has the ſuperintendance of whatever belongs to the department of medicine, provides the army and navy with phyſicians and ſurgeons, &c. Nobody can practice the healing art in the empire without having previouſly undergone an examination here *.

* From which neither the title of doctor obtained abroad nor any other atteſtation can be admitted as an exemption.

The

The college confers alſo on phyſicians and ſurgeons the title of doctor (a faculty which abroad only univerſities pretend to); it likewiſe advances ſurgeons, who have ſerved a certain time, to be ſtaff-ſurgeons, even when they are not appointed to the army, but are only in a country town *.

Beſides theſe are many other chanceries or permanent commiſſions and departments, all having their peculiar buſineſs. Among them are: the upper-hunt-maſter's chancery, which has likewiſe an office in Moſco; the court accomptant-office, in which the high court-marſhal preſides; the ſtable-kantora, the building and garden kantora; the aſſignations-bank; the imperial bank; the commercial commiſſion, which in 1789 conſiſted of ſix members, all perſons of conſiderable rank, and one chancery director, two ſecretaries, one executor, &c.; the mint department; the reviſions-departments, which in a ſenate's ukaſe of the year 1789 was named the office for reviſing the accounts of the empire; the commiſſion for framing the plan of a new law-book; the academical commiſſion, eſtabliſhed not long ſince, has the ſuperintendance over all

* It has the care of obſtetrical inſtitutions, regulates the charges of apothecaries, &c. and determines what noſtrums may be ſold in the empire.

the

the ſchools and univerſities in the empire, (excepting only ſuch as have eſpecial privileges,) provides and examines all the neceſſary ſchool-books, has under it an academical-directory, and receives accounts from all the ſchools; the department of the finance-college, &c. In general all inſtitutions of importance, almoſt every large edifice, the education-houſes, hoſpitals, &c. have their particular offices.

During the late reign many of the colleges and kantoras formerly in being were aboliſhed. This was done at firſt by an ukaſe, bearing date Dec. 15, 1763, when a total alteration was introduced into the ſenate. Others have ceaſed on the erection of the provincial viceroyalties. Of this number are, 1. the ruſſian college of juſtice, at the ſame time the juſtice-comptoir, and the ſudnoï-prikaſe, (which latter formerly decided petty matters of petition and demand,) having their chanceries both at Moſco and St. Peterſburg. 2. The finance-college in Moſco, and the ruſſian finance-comptoir in Peterſburg, the buſineſs of which is now done by the finance-chambers of the ſeveral governments. 3. The ſuperior magiſtracy; after having terminated its affairs, it ceaſed on the 9th of April 1788. 4. The tutelary-chancery, to which were committed the care of all the coloniſt-inſtitutions. 5. The

5. The college of mine-works, the affairs whereof are now managed by the finance-chambers of the governments; to it was ſubjected, in the year 1781, the ſiberian head-mine-office at Ekatarinenburg, conſtituted by the emperor Peter I. over all the uralian mines, and till then independent. There is nothing now remaining of it but the mine-ſchool at St. Peterſburg. 6. The œconomy-college, inſtituted the 26th of February 1764, to have the ſuperintendance over all the landed property at that time taken from the church, and called ſpiritual eſtates, (epiſcopal, monaſtic, and eccleſiaſtical,) and to manage their pecuniary produce. At preſent the boors belonging to thoſe eſtates are under the control of the œconomy-directors at the finance-chambers. — The following colleges and comptoirs appear to be already aboliſhed, or at leaſt are now ſuperfluous: 1. The feudal-college which gave deciſions in litigated ſucceſſions and lawſuits concerning landed property, and conſiſted of four departments. 2. The reviſions-college, which was a ſort of check on other colleges, and reviſed their accounts, and, like the former, was at Moſco. 3. The finance-comptoir for livonian, eſthonian, and finland affairs, the buſineſs whereof is transferred to the finance-courts of

the governments. 4. The manufacture-college, which was at Moſco, but had a comptoir at St. Peterſburg. 5. The confiſcations-college, which directed the ſale of all forfeited eſtates, and, among other things, levied the mulcts and fines impoſed by the other colleges. 6. The chief ſalt-comptoir, the buſineſs of which is probably given to the finance-courts.

SECTION V.

A glance at the Laws.

Persons who imagine the ruſſian form of government to be deſpotic have haſtily advanced, that in Ruſſia every thing is arbitrarily decided rather than legally adjudged *, ſince, beſides the ukaſes that come out from time to time, which, being ſuited only to particular caſes, are frequently different from each other and even contradictory, there is no fixed and determinate law, much leſs any proper collection of ſta-

* Formerly, while there were no regular tribunals, it might be that governors, who were every thing in their governments, or perhaps a voivode, might pronounce arbitrarily in many caſes. But ſuch things are no longer done.

tutes.

tutes *. This is a great miſtake; for, not to mention particular provinces, ſuch as thoſe of Little Ruſſia and thoſe of the Baltic, who have always retained their antient laws, and had the free uſe of them; law-books, or digeſts of the laws, have long been in being, and in uſe in Great Ruſſia. One of them, the novgorodian, was drawn up by Yaroſlaf the great in the eleventh century. Tzar Ivan Vaſſilievitch publiſhed a national code, which was framed upon the manner of thinking in thoſe times. Tzar Alexey Michailovitch publiſhed the Uloſhenie † as a new law of the country, taking in ſome degree the antient laws for its baſis ‡. A far greater number of laws are derived from Peter

* Great improvements are continually making in the laws, but there are many extant both antient and modern; therefore it is often ſaid in ukaſes and ordinances, that the proceeding is to be conformably with the laws of the empire, or in general according to the laws.

† It forms a quarto volume about an inch in thickneſs.

‡ It refers back to the national-laws of tzar Ivan Vaſſilievitch, as then in being, but too rudely drawn up for the then preſent times. Accordingly, the tzar called together his boyars, the patriarch, the metropolitans, archbiſhops, biſhops, and others, to take them into conſideration with him, who unanimouſly agreed to the preſent as the law of the land; and he iſſued his commands that it ſhould be brought into practice as the deciſive law.

the great; for, beſides many particular ukaſes, and thoſe afterwards collected, all of which have the force of laws, ſeveral collections of his are extant, ſuch as, the general regulation; the privileges granted to mine-owners, to which the empreſs Anna afterwards annexed a mine-regulation; the ſpiritual-reglement, enlarging upon that which had been begun by tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch, and continued by Alexey Michailovitch; the articles of war, &c. — But never did any of the ſovereigns apply their attention ſo much to legiſlation as Catharine II. from the very commencement of her reign, by whom were iſſued a great number of ſeparate ukaſes and ordinances as well as whole collections: among the latter may be claſſed the ordinances for the adminiſtration of the governments, the inſtruction, the charter granted to the nobility, the regulations for the police, for commerce, &c.

She exerted every means that law and equity ſhould every where have their courſe. Judges were appointed in the neighbourhood of every place; their duties were clearly preſcribed to them *, and they were brought to account for

* If the ordinances that have been publiſhed to that effect were faithfully complied with, there would certainly be no ground of complaint againſt the adminiſtration of government.

neglect.

neglect. Every rank and ſtation knew its privileges and the bounds aſſigned to it. Wherever any defect was perceived, means were applied for remedying it according to the exigences of the times and of the empire, and for improving and completing the ſyſtem of legiſlation.

Whatever irregularities and enormities have heretofore been committed, they certainly were not by far ſo frequent during the late reign; and her majeſty's orders were not only very ſtrict againſt every mode of corruption, fraud, and oppreſſion *, but by aſcertaining the pay of her officers and defining their duties, together with the employment of other means, ſhe effectually checked thoſe deplorable evils, and earneſtly endeavoured to prevent them entirely. So that it ſeems now to be morally impoſſible that ſuch acts of injuſtice and cruelty ſhould again be practiſed as are found in the hiſtory of many of her predeceſſors, and particularly in that of the empreſs Elizabeth.

* We need only refer to the ukaſe of the 15th of Dec. 1763, for an account of the oppreſſions, &c. that gave riſe to it, in the empreſs's own words. See Life of Catharine II. vol. i. p. 345. 3d edit. See alſo p. 477 & ſqq.

Remarks on the Condition of the Subjects.

THAT in repreſenting the ſtate of a country and the nature of its government, a principal regard ſhould be had to the condition of the ſubjects needs no formal proof; it might indeed be conſidered in ſome degree as a political barometer. However, it forms an important object of political intereſt, whether we regard the ſovereign, the empire at large, or the individuals of which it is compoſed: it being of infinite moment to the firſt that the ſubjects ſhould be in an eaſy and proſperous ſtate, not merely from the generous ſentiment of humanity, but likewiſe becauſe the well-being of his government depends upon it: with the latter it frequently determines the nature of their lot, fixes the degree of their patriotic ardour, the important ſource of numberleſs ſocial virtues.

It will not here be expected that the condition of the ſubjects ſhould be preſented in every point of view, or that an accurate deſcription ſhould be given of each particular people and of every claſs; which could not be done without tireſome repetitions and unprofitable amplifications, not to mention the almoſt inſurmountable difficulties

culties we ſhould have to encounter in the attempt. It will be amply ſufficient if we confine ourſelves to two objects, the public burdens and the comforts of the individual. As nothing more can be expected from the happieſt and moſt beneficial form of government, than that it ſhould wiſely apportion the former, and promote the latter by the moſt efficacious means. Both together will furniſh us with ſome explanatory proofs and examples, from which ſuggeſtions will ariſe that may throw light on what has been advanced in the foregoing ſections. Such examples have, indeed, here and there been occaſionally ſcattered; but the importance of the ſubject demands, or at leaſt juſtifies me in attempting to give a more preciſe explication of it, eſpecially as foreigners are apt to entertain erroneous opinions on the condition of the ruſſian ſubjects, which can excite no ſurpriſe, as both antient and modern travellers, of whom many have paſſed no more than a few weeks in Ruſſia, or are only acquainted with the reſidence, have ſpread ſo many falſe reports concerning it.

If any ſhould think that theſe remarks would have been more properly interwoven with the particulars that have juſt been treated on inſtead of making them into a diſtinct ſection, they have only to conſider them under the two following

heads, as a ſupplement to the foregoing ſections, in order that they may not be quite out of place.

1. PUBLIC IMPOSTS AND BURDENS ON THE SUBJECTS. After having already pointed out and explained the greater part of them, it will be ſufficient now to make a cloſer application of them to ſome particular ranks, and add a few comments by way of illuſtration.

Certain public impoſts depend entirely on circumſtances, for inſtance, the ſtamped paper and the poſchlins, as well in law matters as in the ſale of a landed eſtate. To theſe we ſhall pay no regard, eſpecially as the great multitude, or the common people are not at all ſubject to them, inaſmuch as the boors poſſeſs no immoveable property; and, becauſe, when they have occaſion to prefer a petition or a complaint, or to apply to a court of juſtice, they are allowed to do it by word of mouth, in which neither poſchlin nor ſtamped paper are neceſſary *. —

* It is ſcarcely ever neceſſary but in juridical proceedings. In private bonds or obligations, &c. it depends entirely on the parties concerned whether they will uſe it or not. If not, then the proper ſtamped ſheet is only added when the writing is brought before a court of juſtice. This tax, therefore, is not here ſo burdenſome as in a country where a ſtamp is neceſſary to every trifling receipt.

Neither

Neither can taxes which are in the nature of contracts or rents be properly conſidered in the number of public burdens. The crown-boors and the agricultural boors poſſeſs no landed property; for the land allotted to them they pay the obrok, or perform taſk-ſervice, or deliver a certain quantity of natural products, which may be conſidered as rent, which the boor, whether belonging to a private individual or to a nobleman, is bound to pay his landlord for the grounds he occupies: he has no need, therefore, of employing a capital for obtaining a piece of land, as in countries where the peaſant can purchaſe it only for a ſum of money. It is nearly the ſame when they ſet up bee-ſtages in a foreſt belonging to the crown, in conſideration of a certain yearly impoſt, &c.

Here we ſhould beſtow our attention on the proper taxes and burdens which are general and permanent, according to the different ranks and conditions. In general it is to be remarked, that their total amount cannot be aſcertained * even generally at ſo much per cent. excepting

* In ſome countries of the continent the ſubject pays the 20th pfennig, or even from 30 to 40 per cent. on his profits in trade, &c. There is nothing of this ſort in Ruſſia.

among the merchants, as they do not merely vary according to the ranks and provinces, but are very different in themſelves.

The nobleman, who, generally ſpeaking, pays no tax for any of his land which he occupies himſelf, nor even for his moveable property, ſhould reaſonably be conſidered according to the various relations in which he ſtands. — If he poſſeſs no male vaſſals, his fields, foreſts, mines, mills, fiſheries, &c. which he occupies with free or hired labourers, are as exempt from taxation as his perſon: let him ſell what part of his foreſt, &c. he will, he pays no tax on the ſale; only if he ſell the foreſt itſelf, as a piece of ground, then the purchaſer (or he himſelf) muſt pay the poſchlin *. Such noblemen are not only in Little Ruſſia, and other places, but even in Great Ruſſia, where, however, they are not reckoned among the rich nobility, though many of them may poſſeſs conſiderable property.

On the other hand the nobleman who has vaſſals muſt furniſh recruits out of them. Indeed, as has been before obſerved, it falls upon his boors; but he, as lord of the manor, loſes

* In order to ſave this, they frequently, particularly in Eſthonia, inſtead of making a ſale, enter into mortgages for a certain number of years.

of

of his number of men, conſequently, according to the phraſe here in uſe, a part of his immoveable property. This public burden is at times conſiderable *, and ſeems on one ſide to be heavier than in other european countries; which the following inſtance may explain. The province of Ingria, which was formerly exempt from the levy of recruits, ever ſince the laſt war, has furniſhed annually one recruit out of every 100 ſouls, or male heads. As children and old men, even infirm and decrepit beggars, are included in this number, and always reckoned according to the laſt reviſion, though ſince that time many have died, deſerted, or been given as recruits; therefore ſometimes out of 30 able-bodied or working men according to their age, one recruit muſt be delivered. If the noblemen have none ſuch in his village, or is unwilling to part with them, he tries to buy them of ſome other nobleman, paying for them 300 rubles, or even more. The crown reckons for each 360 rubles; at which price they may juſtly be eſtimated in regard to the public taxes, eſpecially as the delivery of them is attended

* It is well known, not to be to the advantage of any country, that the nobility with large eſtates in land ſhould contribute nothing to the exigences of the ſtate, and be exempt from all public burdens.

with

with ſeveral expences *. Suppoſe the nobleman employs his boors, if he does not himſelf follow farming, only for the obrok, and is paid by each ſoul or male 5 rubles, then he raiſes from his village, conſiſting of 100 ſouls, the annual ſum of 500 rubles, or, by reaſon of the recruits already delivered, &c. not nearly ſo much. If he purchaſes the recruits required, or, which is the ſame thing, if he reckon them at the former price, he ſurrenders nearly two thirds of his income to the crown. — We ſhould, however, be apt to draw very erroneous concluſions were we to conſider the public burdens of the nobility only on this ſide. For, in the firſt place, moſt noblemen take the recruits out of their villages, without buying them, there being always people for that purpoſe †; conſequently, he loſes a man indeed, yet by him not about two thirds of his income, but only 5 rubles of the fixed yearly obrok. If he live not on his eſtates, or

* The recruit is furniſhed with clothes, travelling-money, a ſtock of proviſions, &c. Sometimes a preſent is given to the receivers, (the officer and the ſurgeon, who muſt examine him,) as a bribe that they may not object to him.

† For this purpoſe, as in other countries, are taken ſuch as would come to no good, being addicted to drunkenneſs and thieving, &c. Many maſters give up their ſervants, inſtead of the puniſhment they have deſerved, as recruits. Their place is ſoon ſupplied by births.

in

in his village, then he does not trouble his head about the delivery of recruits, but leaves the whole care of it to his boors, who are obliged to pay him yearly the full amount of the obrok, in common, clear of all deductions for the recruits delivered. 2. Many noblemen take from each ſoul a much larger obrok than 5 rubles, particularly when their boors are rich, or have found out the art of carrying on profitable trades, or they take in hand plots of ground which they cauſe to be tilled and cultivated by the corvée or feudal-ſervice of their boors; whereby their income amounts to much more than the 500 rubles from 100 ſouls. 3. In time of peace commonly no more than one recruit is demanded out of 500 ſouls, and that not every year, but ſometimes after a long interval*; then the nobleman ſcarcely feels any burden at all, eſpecially as he has nothing to do with any other impoſt of the crown, even in war-time, &c.† What is this then in compariſon with the taxes in other countries!

* What is here ſaid of furniſhing recruits holds good in ſome reſpects of the crown-boors, &c. as far as they are liable to it.

† Frequently the boors pay the money for which the lord bought the recruits, becauſe otherwiſe he compels their ſons to go by drawing lots.

We

We have before obſerved, that the nobility in Livonia, Eſthonia, and Finland, furniſh no recruits from their vaſſals, but in return are ſubject to various other public burdens and taxes. The latter are extended in Livonia even to ſome noble manorial grounds, ſuch as have been formerly occupied by boors, and others that paſs under ſeveral denominations.

2. The clergy, in regard to their perſons, are likewiſe exempt from taxes. Their ſtipends, which conſiſt in money, and in the country of corn and pieces of land, are raiſed by them free of all deduction. — That the ruſſian ſecular clergy give their ſons, when they have ſeveral, as recruits, has been already mentioned, though it is not to be conſidered as a burden, as they gradually riſe to be officers. Numbers of placemen and lutheran preachers, &c. in the baltic provinces, whoſe ſons are not required for military ſervice, put them into it of their own accord, either in the hope of ſpeedy advancement, or becauſe their circumſtances are too narrow to admit of their devoting them to a ſtudious life.

The livonian and eſthonian paſtorates, if poſſeſſing any freeholds in villages, are equally ſubject to the public burdens with the noble eſtates: previous to the year 1783 the eſthonian paſtorates, even though they had freehold villages belong-

belonging to them, had nothing to do with them.

3. Placemen and officers of the crown, &c. are in many countries obliged either to pay a certain annual tax upon their ſalaries, or at leaſt occaſionally a ſort of war-contribution *: nothing of this kind is known in Ruſſia. Only for the making out of patents, here, as elſewhere, certain fees are taken.

4. All literary men, who are not inrolled in any guild, and, beſide their learned profeſſion, as phyſicians, lawyers, &c. are not engaged in trade, are entirely exempt from taxes. The ſame holds good of artiſts, &c.

5. All people who live ſolely on the intereſt of their capital, and do not inſcribe themſelves in any guild, however large their income may be, pay no tax upon it whatever.

6. All inhabitants of towns poſſeſs their immovable property free of all taxation, only bearing their quota where troops are quartered upon them, and are obliged, as in other countries, to contribute to the requiſites of the town. — As burghers, in regard to the public taxes, which

* It has happened that an impoveriſhed government has paid the ſalaries in obligations alone, and demanded the tax upon them in ſpecie.

however

however are laid neither on the profits of their trade nor on their immovable property, are divided into two classes, some paying the beforementioned per centage, and others the poll-tax. — The recruit-money paid by the russian merchants, has likewise been noticed before.

7. Among the free-countrymen in regard to public taxes, there is, as above-said, a great difference: some paying absolutely nothing, but perform service; others being subject to the poll-tax and the obrok, or tribute, or other pecuniary imposts. So likewise it is in regard to recruits. — Menial servants, who in some countries are obliged to give a part of their hard-earned pittance of wages into the public treasury, pay in Russia, if free-born, only the usual poll-tax; foreigners nothing at all.

8. Vassal-boors pay poll-tax and furnish recruits. — The obrok of the crown-boors, as already remarked, is not to be considered as a public tax, but as a sort of rent for the occupancy of the lands allotted to them, or for the permission to follow any trade they please *.

* Rent is indeed by no means the proper term; but I know of no better. For even people who occupy no lands, are obliged sometimes to pay the obrok, which they strive to earn by all sorts of hard-labour: if they be beggars, yet the community or the village must pay for them.

Some-

Sometimes cases will happen, when a public tax seems to bear hard upon particular persons, though it be otherwise in fact, or at least no convenient means of altering it can be devised. This may be illustrated by an example. It was ordained, once for all, that the amount of the poll-tax calculated upon the revision for every village, estate, district, or house, should be brought into the coffers of the crown unaltered till the next revision *; therefore the births in the interval occasion no increase, and the deaths, impoverishments, desertions, &c. no diminution of the sum. This maxim must be observed, as otherwise the collectors would have no more to do than every moment to alter their lists, books, and accounts. Every one will allow that this immutability is highly necessary; and, forasmuch as commonly more persons are born than die, it is beneficial to the subjects. Only on applying it to particular instances it will not alleviate every one. So, perhaps, the nobleman, the man of

* Besides, every community is allowed to collect this sum by a prudent distribution. Thus, for instance, the magistrate sees that the richer inhabitants contribute somewhat more, and the poorer rather less. The nobleman may proceed in like manner in his village and demesnes. Consequently many burghers or boors pay a larger poll-tax than is imposed on them by the crown.

letters,

letters, or some other, causes his free hired servants to be enregistered at the revision; but after a while they choose to enlist as recruits, and therefore serve only the crown; yet the master must pay the poll-tax for them till the next revision. The case is the same with artificers, if their apprentices enlist for soldiers. So it is likewise with criminals condemned to the public works. — Here it is really too glaring at first sight; but the crown can do no otherwise, or the immutability which we have admitted to be necessary would hourly fall to pieces. Moreover, it should not be forgotten, that burden and benefit proceed with equal steps; for, if the tradesman takes an apprentice who was born after the revision, he pays no poll-tax for him. These instances may perhaps suggest similar cases to some readers.

Several provinces have also public burdens peculiar to them, which may be regarded as taxes, such as, maintaining the post-stations, repairing the highways, &c.

Sometimes the taxes and public burdens wear an entirely different aspect. Indeed that has not happened, as far as I know, in Great-Russia for a long time, except in the obrok of the crown-boors: but in Little-Russia, and with the old slobode regiments, a pecuniary tax and afterwards the poll-tax were introduced in lieu of the former

kozak-

kozak-ſervice. The latter has likewiſe been carried into Livonia, Eſthonia, and Finland. — Ingria formerly was not called upon for recruits, for mending the roads and maintaining the poſt-ſtations; but was obliged to furniſh a certain quantity of forage for the horſe-guards. The latter is now aboliſhed, and the poll-tax of 150 kopeeks on every male is introduced, with the obligation to keep the roads in order at their own expence, and latterly the delivery of recruits. But then the proximity to the reſidence furniſhes them with opportunity for making great returns for their products.

From this ſhort repreſentation it ſatisfactorily appears, that the ordinary public taxes of the empire are very various; that, taken on an average, they admit of no per cent calculation; that they are liable to ſeveral alterations according to times and circumſtances; and that even the delivery of recruits is not of the ſame nature throughout.

As we ſhould here particularly conſider the great body of the yeomanry or country-folk, it is now to be obſerved that their real neceſſaries are ſubject to no taxes, becauſe in all Ruſſia there is no ſuch thing as exciſe *. What the common man wants for his nouriſhment and cloathing,

* None upon the meat or the cattle that he ſells, on the malt, bread, fiſh, &c. which the proprietor conſumes, or which are bought.

generally consists in the products of his rural œconomy, on which, in many districts he pays no tax whatever, and in others only a moderate tribute to the land-owner for the occupancy of his farm. Salt is indeed a monopoly of the crown, yet, as observed before, it is very cheap; brandy on the other hand, is dear; but many of the common people do not hold it to be indispensably necessary to them; others make it themselves for their own use, as the kozaks; or, on a failure of their crops of corn, to supply the place of it, prepare a strong liquor of milk, as several of the uncivilized nomadic nations, as may be seen, among others, from the writings of the academicians. — For the earning of money to pay the pecuniary taxes a thousand means present themselves to all who have a disposition to work and to careful œconomy. Husbandry, the breeding of cattle, the forests, the culture of hops, bee-stages, &c. yield the boor, beside the supply of the necessaries of life, a considerable surplus for sale: besides, he sometimes goes himself, or sends his well-grown son, if there be no manufactories in the neighbourhood, to such places as afford work and profit, either as a fisherman or a boatman on the rivers, or as a bricklayer or carpenter, or to cut ditches and water-courses, &c. — In general the taxes are not oppressive; and those that seem to be so, or

are

are not perfectly agreeable to the ſubject, cannot, as we have ſeen before, be conveniently altered. But that the ſubjects, if they will, may live comfortably according to their ſtation, ſhall be more accurately, yet briefly ſhewn under the head immediately following.

2. *General welfare of the Subjects.*

In every country, and among all ranks are to be found rich and poor perſons, whoſe welfare is generally computed by their circumſtances or earnings. That there are very rich people in Ruſſia is known to every one. But even to the poorer ſort it is not difficult to procure themſelves in a ſhort time a ſort of competence, as ſources of profit are open to all ranks, ſuch as, for the nobility, the military, and civil ſervice; for the burghers an extenſive commerce, manufactures, and all kinds of ſervice, &c. for the country people a prodigious variety of products, advantageous employments, and the like.

That both the nobility and the burghers live actually in affluence, is manifeſt from the luxury that every where prevails. Whoever has travelled through Ruſſia muſt have obſerved in the houſes of the country nobleſſe that are not quite fallen to decay, a very plentiful table, neat and handſome dreſſes, a competent number of ſervants,

vants, and all other things in proportion. In the towns the wealthy merchants live not only in a decent manner, but even in a grand ſtyle. The ſame may be affirmed of a number of tradeſmen in ſeveral diſtricts, particularly in the provinces of the Baltic. Many of the latter who go about in a plain and rather humble garb, yet conſume more than their equals in many other countries *.

But we are here particularly ſpeaking of the claſs of countrymen. The ruſſian boor, even the vaſſal of the nobleman, lives very decently in his houſe, has a ſufficiency of wholeſome food, is neatly dreſſed, puts commonly two or three diſhes on his table, and even accumulates a trifling capital, though, as it is not ſecured to him and may be taken from him, he frequently buries it in the ground. Beſides, we have already named ſome noble villages where the boors diſplay an opulence which would be looked for in vain in other countries: and ſuch villages are in great numbers. For judging of the reſt

* At the tables of the german tradeſmen in Livonia are commonly ſeen more than one diſh, and among them ſome that are coſtly, for inſtance, chickens, veniſon, and veal, when they are not uncommonly dear; they generally (excepting the very pooreſt) drink coffee twice a day, and make punch on Sundays; though both theſe liquors are at preſent rather expenſive. But their profits are high.

one

one inſtance may ſuffice; and that for the ſake of variety ſhall be a crown-village. The large village Meſen, on the banks of the river of the ſame name, 50 verſts from its exit into a great arm of the White-ſea, ſtands in an ungrateful ſoil, where nature has acted the part of a ſtep-mother: for it contains nothing but foreſt; only a trifle of barley is ſown yearly, but which ſeldom ripens, and is only uſed for the ſtraw in fodder-ing the cattle. Nevertheleſs the boors here have always been rich people. Every man has a houſe to live in, which, though only of wood, yet is roomy, and conſiſts of two ſtories; the lower ſerving for the purpoſes of houſekeeping, but the upper containing ſeveral handſome apart-ments fitted up with paper-hangings, and ſup-plied with engliſh furniture; many of them keep above 100 ſervants, from the Laplanders of thoſe parts, who wait upon them with their rein-deer. Theſe people derive their riches from the fiſheries on the White-ſea and the Frozen-ocean; but their greateſt profits ariſe from the capture of whales. Their products of this nature are ſold to the Engliſh, moſtly thoſe who reſide at Arch-angel; from which place they obtain their neceſ-ſaries: by the road they have 700 verſts to go thither, but by ſea only half that diſtance. The people of this country are well-built, but ſuffer

much in their eyes from the reflection of the ſun-beams by the ice *. Their village, on account of its magnitude and the opulence that prevails there, has latterly been erected into a circle-town †. — The ruſſian and finniſh boors in the province of Ingria, or what is now the government of St. Peterſburg, are not by far to be reckoned among the wealthieſt, ſince the greater part of them, beſides the taxes in kind and in ſpecie, are obliged to perform feudal ſervice to the nobles of thoſe parts: but all of them have a decent income and live in a kind of affluence. — The ruſſian boor may ſoon become rich, as he underſtands the art of making profit of every thing, and whenever he pleaſes of being content with a little ‡; for all his clothes coſt him nothing, conſiſting merely of what is manu-

* Some are almoſt blind by it at 30 years of age.

† Over againſt this village, on the other ſide of the river, the Engliſh had great concerns in the reign of the empreſs Elizabeth, where they conſtructed ſaw-mills, iron-forges, with a great number of hammers worked by water, &c. which are now all gone to ruin.

‡ A ſtriking example of this is obſervable in the ruſſian ſoldier, who, from his extremely ſmall pay, and his exactly meaſured allowance of proviſion, frequently by œconomy and good management accumulates a little capital from his ſavings.

factured

factured at home; and his diet, which, by the way, during the long fasts is extremely meagre, is supplied to him from his husbandry.

Among the very numerous nobility many possess fortunes of 100,000 and 500,000 rubles, or sometimes more; but the generality may have a fortune of between 30,000 and 100,000. Others, who have no landed property, or but little, and perhaps are even in debt, find various means of acquiring a decent income, either in the military or civil service, or by farming. Those who are called poor, would not be thought so in Saxony, Brandenburg, and several other countries: for none of them, as there, are seen walking on foot or waiting on themselves; every one keeps his coach and horses, at least a servant, and several maids to attend on his lady *. Hence we may easily form a judgment of the expence that is so conspicuous in the houses of the affluent nobility, with whom the mansion, gardens, equipage, table, attendance, plate, and furniture, induce

* If it should be asked how they defray this expence, it might serve as an answer, that horses and servants here do not occasion any great disbursements. Besides, he often meets with support from his more wealthy brethren, at least lodging, provender for horses and cattle, fire-wood, &c. perhaps on one of the manors, free of expence.

one to believe it the ſeat of ſome petty prince *. At this we need the leſs be ſurpriſed, as the riches, proſperity, and revenues of the land-owners are more than three times as great as they were 30 years ago. At that time a haak of land in Livonia or Eſthonia was worth about 2000 rubles, and produced a yearly rent of 80 or at moſt 120 rubles; whereas at preſent a haak cannot be purchaſed for leſs than 5000, and with ſmall eſtates will coſt upwards of 7000 rubles, yielding a rent of 400 or 600 rubles, and even more. Hence it is evident, that perſons who 20 years ſince were worth 20,000 rubles, may now be deemed rich men. Yet with all theſe happy circumſtances, many of them have entirely run out their eſtates and plunged their families in diſtreſs by unthriftineſs, the baleful paſſion for ruinous play, extravagant expences, and idle ſpeculations †.

In

* Several noblemen of good fortunes, however, ſtill continue to live under a thatched roof. Though great luxury in general prevails, yet there are numbers of families who adopt a prudent frugality, and even diſcover a ſtriking parſimony.

† It is rather unaccountable how ſome noblemen whoſe eſtates by this means are put into ſequeſtration and carefully managed, find them inſufficient to ſatisfy the creditors, yet afterwards

In no country are the learned profeſſions ſo well provided for as in the provinces laſt-mentioned. The preacher *, even on the ſmalleſt country-paſtorate, lives on as brilliant a footing as the general ſuperintendant in many of the provinces of Germany: his daily table is ſupplied with ſeveral diſhes; he keeps men ſervants and maid ſervants †; he is commonly the friend and confident of the noblemen of his pariſh, and his houſe the uſual reſort of them; no man of

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afterwards live in a ſort of affluence and at a greater expence than would be reaſonably imagined. At leaſt the children ſeem not always to become poor at the ſame time with their parents.

* The ſtated ſalaries in towns are ſtill at the old rate, and very low; but the accidents, as they are called, that is preſents, inſtead of what with us are demanded as *fees*, are ſo much the greater, eſpecially when ſeveral noblemen are reſident there, who uſually give for a marriage or a baptiſm from 20 to 50 rubles. Alſo rich burghers make large preſents.

† When he has any paſtorate-boors, he is, like the nobleman on his demeſne, their maſter and judge, takes from them as many domeſtics as he pleaſes, and has his huſbandry performed by their feudal-ſervice. If he have no boors belonging to him, then the pariſh muſt find him a proper number of domeſtics, and beſides them, the neceſſary hands for his huſbandry without wages or recompence; he likewiſe receives his firewood of them, free of expence.

rank

rank need be aſhamed of driving in his coach and pair, often his coach and four *. His paſtorate is equal in all reſpects, even in privileges and immunities, to any nobleman's eſtate in his neighbourhood: the income of a larger benefice upon a near calculation may amount to 1500 or 2000, and a moderate one to about 800 rubles; yet there are a few ſmaller, which are likewiſe more productive than the little manors, becauſe they have not only the benefit of their own huſbandry, but alſo a good revenue in corn and money from the pariſh. — The livonian advocates are not wont to draw up a writing, as in Saxony, for a few groſches: the ordinary fee being ſeldom confined to 5 or 10 rubles, and for inſtituting a trifling proceſs, or for preparing a covenant, contract, teſtament, &c. they are uſually paid from 50 to 100 rubles: it is not then to be wondered at that they drive about in ſuch carriages as they go in in Saxony to the privy-council; and, that, after practiſing a few years, they purchaſe a noble demeſne. — The phyſician, even the ſurgeon, who frequently acts in the capacity of the former, is paid for an ordinary cure from 30 to 200 rubles; it is common for a

* To ſee him going about on foot, as in Germany, would be a ſtrange ſight.

wealthy

wealthy nobleman to make an agreement with his phyſician, whom he always ſends for from town in his own carriage, and pays him for the whole cure 500 rubles. When a ſurgeon inoculates the boor-children in a diſtrict, he generally may expect a recompence of 80 or 100 rubles. Beſides the phyſician and the ſurgeon which are paid by the crown for every circle, it is uſual for a nobleman or a pariſh to keep a phyſician of their own, to whom they give a fixed ſalary of 300 or 400 rubles. — The common ſalary of a domeſtic tutor 30 years ago was 100 or 150 rubles; at preſent in the houſes of noblemen it is generally 300 or 400 rubles, to which tea, coffee, the uſe of the carriage, attendance, waſhing, and even conſiderable preſents are added *. Nor need this be a matter of ſurpriſe, as the nobleman pays his ſteward, who can only write and keep accounts, with free board, &c. 100 or 150 rubles per annum.

Owing to the flouriſhing ſtate of commerce, in the maritime towns many merchants are ſeen who poſſeſs capitals of ſome hundred thouſands of rubles. It may be advanced in general that

* The muſic-maſter at the manor-houſe uſually gets as much. The poor nobleman conſequently feels himſelf rather pinched, when his children are grown up to require a domeſtic tutor.

this

this opulence would be more common, if they were fewer in number, and their expences * bore a nearer proportion with their gains †. — The tradeſmen earn a great deal of money with little trouble ‡.

* It is only in ſmall towns that the merchant's wife goes on foot to church; in the larger ſhe has her coach after the neweſt faſhion, and in the houſe as much magnificence is diſplayed frequently as in that of the wealthy nobleman.

† The ruſſian traders in the livonian towns are a proof of this. As their expence in cloaths, eating, carriage, &c. is far ſmaller, they can afford to ſell their commodities much cheaper, accordingly they make quick returns, and ſoon find themſelves in good circumſtances.

‡ A few examples from the ſmall country-towns will ſet this matter in a perſpicuous light. The ſhoemaker takes for a pair of ſhoes, when all the leather is found him, merely for the making between 50 kopeeks and 1 ruble; for a pair of boots 1½ or 2 rubles; the taylor for a plain garment from 3 to 5 rubles; the joiner for a common cheſt ſmeared with varniſh, for which the wood coſts him between 30 and 50 kopeeks, from 5 to 10 rubles; the wheelwright for a pair of coach-wheels, the wood coſting him 40 kopeeks, gets between 3 and 4 rubles; the tanner for a bullock's hide which he buys raw for 3 or 4 rubles, is paid 8 or 10 rubles; the ſmith for an ordinary padlock will have from 1 to 3 rubles, &c. — But then in what manner do theſe people live? Expenſive victuals, coffee twice a day, (which here coſts at preſent 48 to 52 kopeeks per pound,) entertainments, parties of pleaſure, &c. are extremely common. The wife goes gaily dreſſed, and ſeldom condeſcends to do any of the houſhold buſineſs, but leaves it all to her maids.

The

The livonian and eſthonian peaſantry are generally thought to be, if not miſerable, at leaſt poor: and many of them may be ſo termed, if we conſider their vaſſalage and their feudal burdens, or their dwellings, nouriſhment, and houſhold furniture. The induſtrious and frugal, however, live upon the produce of their agriculture in as comfortable a manner as the nature of their feudal conſtitution will admit, if the boundleſs avarice or inſenſibility of a proprietor do not cruſh them by exorbitant impoſts and feudal burdens. Among the Lettes are boors who feel ſome conſequence by their riches; and among the Eſthonians are boor's wives who wear ſilver necklaces and ſtomachers to the value of 50 rubles; and among both nations ſome who eat their own good houſhold bread the whole year through, with a diſh of meat beſides, have a conſiderable quantity of live ſtock, and lay by a ſmall capital ſum of money, (ſometimes, as was before obſerved, bury it in the ground,) or let it out upon intereſt. Many of them might live more commodiouſly than in the wretched ſmoky rooms which they inhabit, as ſome of the ſubſtantial peaſants actually do in chambers with neat little windows; but they had in general much rather adhere to the old manners of their fathers.

fathers *. On eſtates belonging to the crown, where the impoſts and feudal ſervices are accurately defined, the boor, when his huſbandry ſucceeds, lives contented and happy; and many of the private landlords act the part of a father to the people on their demeſnes. — Some writers ſeem to imagine the Eſthonian to be deſtitute of the finer feelings of our nature and a demi-brute; but thouſands of examples ſhew that nature has not dealt unkindly with them, though in quickneſs of intellect they are far below the Ruſſians.

The generality of the kozaks enjoy not only the neceſſaries but the accommodations and comforts of life. In the parts about the Don eaſe and affluence are every where ſeen; and the kozaks of the Ural uſually paſs their time in idleneſs and yet in plenty, from the riches they obtain by means of the productive fiſheries on that river.

It may probably not be unacceptable to find here a ſomewhat more circumſtantial account of a very remote province, that of Nertſchinſk, which to my knowledge has not yet been deſcribed by any traveller as to its proſperity. The

* The Greenlander is much better pleaſed with his filthy earth-hole than with a fine edifice in Copenhagen.

people

people there pay, according to the nature of their condition and conſtitution, the uſual public taxes, either by tribute or money. This they derive, as well as all other neceſſaries, from agriculture, the chace, the fiſhery, working in the mines, the trade of carriers, the ſale of their products to the ruſſian merchants who go thither for them, and their trade with China, when it is open. Some of theſe ſources of gain require to be a little enlarged on here; firſt remarking, that ruſſian and foreign goods, particularly linen, are annually imported and conſumed in thoſe parts to the amount of above 100,000 rubles. On the other hand, the country-people, beſide their own conſumption get a net profit in money, among other things from: 1. agriculture; in good years the boors ſell to the mine-works at the four towns thereabouts, and to the troops on the frontiers, annually to the amount of 20,000 to 25,000 rubles in corn; 2. from the trade of carriers, as they convey all the furs of thoſe parts to ruſſian towns on account of the merchants*, or bring back goods from them, by which they earn every year from 8 to 10,000 rubles; 3. from the trade to China, when it goes

* Some even carry at times the noble metals obtained there to the place of their deſtination.

forward, whither they tranſport annually about 2000 horſes, nearly the ſame number of horned cattle, and as many yufts or hides, and ſeveral thouſand lamb-ſkins; 4. from the trade to Ruſſia in which they only diſpoſe of furs: this amounted (beſides the tribute paid by the Tunguſes and Burætes) from the year 1785 to 1789, one year with another, annually to about 120,000 to 240,000 ſquirrel-ſkins, at 100 or 150 rubles the thouſand; 180 to 240 ſables, at 5 to 15 rubles a piece, rarely 20 to 25 rubles *; 200 to 350 fox-ſkins, at 1½ or 2 rubles a piece; 100 to 150 bear-ſkins, at 4 to 15 rubles a piece †; 300 to 400 wolf-ſkins, at 1½ to 3 rubles each; 50 to 60 lynx-ſkins, from 5 to 8 rubles each ‡; 10,000

* The da-urian ſables and ſquirrels are reckoned to be the beſt in the empire, accordingly they are dearer than thoſe from other parts. For this reaſon the Chineſe, who have the art of colouring them, buy, not theſe but the worſe and therefore cheaper ones from Irkutſk For ſome time paſt it has been obſerved, that the ſables and ſquirrels retire thence to the river Amoor: perhaps on account of the number of hunters.

† The latter price is paid by the ruſſian merchants that come thither only for thoſe with ſilvery hair, which however are very ſcarce.

‡ But when the commerce at Kiachta flouriſhes, they are worth in trade 13 or 14 rubles a piece.

to

to 15,000 hare-ſkins, at 40 to 50 rubles the thouſand*; 30 to 40 glutton-ſkins, from 4 to 8 rubles a piece; 6000 to 8000 black and white lamb-ſkins, a black at 50 to 70, a white at 20 to 35 kopeeks, &c.

As agriculture here is very inviting on account of the profit it brings, the Tunguſes and Buræts have begun to addict themſelves to it, and thus open an advantageous proſpect for futurity. Some of them alſo attempt to gain a livelihood as carriers.

That amidſt ſo many means of gaining money the people muſt in general be in eaſy circumſtances, is apparent to the moſt careleſs obſerver; beſides, the conduct of the old ruſſian inhabitants is a proof of it, many of whom are cenſured by the academicians in the account of their travels for living in idleneſs and debauchery †. It was for this reaſon that a very reſpectable perſon, who has a thorough knowledge of the diſtrict of Nertſchinſk, mentions in a letter, that it would be of great ſervice to the province and

* The ſkins of bears, wolves, lynxes, foxes, badgers, and marmottes, are worſe in hair than thoſe in other parts of Ruſſia; but thoſe of the hare are as good as anywhere elſe.

† The old inhabitants who follow huſbandry particularly are become very negligent and great ſpendthrifts by their affluence. Even the common people there drink a prodigious quantity of tea; each perſon ſeveral cans of it a day.

the agriculture of thoſe parts, as well as highly improving and encouraging to the other inhabitants, if the crown would ſend about 1000 or more good ruſſian boors to ſettle there: as they would ſet a fine example of induſtry to the uncivilized natives, and teach them to carry on huſbandry to greater advantage, and might perhaps gradually inſpire their elder brethren of thoſe countries, or at leaſt their poſterity, with more œconomical diſpoſitions.

Foreign gentlemen coming to Ruſſia have perhaps entered a peaſant's houſe by the road, and at the ſight of ſome objects have been led to think the condition of the ruſſian boors to be extremely wretched and miſerable*. They found, for example, no feather-beds; as the ruſſian boor ſleeps on a hard bench, his coat or a ſort of rug ſerving him both for coverlet and pillow. But the common ruſſian, who is inured to this from his very infancy, and generally has nothing at all to cover him, requires no feather-bed; otherwiſe he could ſoon provide himſelf with one, as he is neither in want of tame poultry nor wild fowl. — Others have pronounced the ruſſian merchants, from their ſimple national habit, to be deſtitute of propriety in dreſs; and

* Some travellers, from ſeeing particularly poor peaſants or villages in Livonia and Eſthonia, draw concluſions concerning all the country people of the empire; but they are groundleſs.

have

have exclaimed againſt their ordinary favourite meſſes, which indeed may not be highly palatable to every foreign depraved appetite. But this way of reaſoning ſurely is not juſt. Who will preſume to ſet himſelf up for a competent judge of taſte for other men? If the ruſſian merchant content himſelf with a cheap national dreſs, which however is by no means always the caſe, he is certainly to be commended for it; at the ſame time his wife perhaps wears as many genuine pearls upon her head-dreſs (that being a very uſual ornament) as would buy him ſeveral handſome ſuits of cloaths.

The moderate taxes, the cheap living, the excellent and numerous products, the contentedneſs of the people, and the good regulations adopted through the empire, afford to every one who conducts himſelf well in his ſtation of life, ſufficient means for acquiring a competency. The majority of the ruſſian ſubjects fare better in their way than the great multitude in France, Germany, Sweden, and ſeveral other countries. That the ſame may be ſaid of all claſſes, needs not here be repeated, it having already been made apparent. — Where any deficiency is perceivable*, the fault is not to

* As is the caſe with numbers of vaſſals whoſe hard lot it is to belong to very ſevere landlords; or with tradeſmen who experience a want of cuſtomers, or with a decayed merchant, &c.

be

be imputed to the public inſtitutions, laws, taxes, and form of government; but to particular circumſtances and unavoidable combinations, often ſolely to the ſuffering ſubject himſelf, who may be either regardleſs of his duties, or negligent in his accounts, or perhaps has taken up a profeſſion for which he had not the proper talents*. But it is indiſputable, that in Ruſſia, by a propriety of behaviour, the foreigner as well as the native may ſoon procure a decent livelihood.

In ſome countries authors have attempted to calculate the whole national wealth, or at leaſt the amount of all the natural products, and to aſcertain what portion of it falls to the ſhare of every individual. Theſe exerciſes may be an amuſement for idle hours, but ſeldom afford ſatisfaction to the man of ſcience.

* This may ſerve as a hint to ſome coloniſts who are diſſatisfied with their condition, who having obtained parcels of land, have neither inclination nor abilities to cultivate them, and therefore continue as poor as at the firſt coming. It is applicable to many Italians and others, who would nowhere procure a decent livelihood were they to travel the whole world over.

END OF THE SECOND VOLUME.